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THE
TWENTY-SECOND YEARBOOK
OF THE
NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY
OF EDUCATION

PART II
THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE ELEMENTARY
AND SECONDARY SCHOOL

PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF HAROLD O. RUGG
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EDITOR'S PREFACE

The idea of producing a *Yearbook* upon the "Social Studies" was first broached in February, 1922, but it was not until October that a systematic effort was made to canvass the possibilities of securing material, and not until November that a definite decision was reached to undertake publication in 1923. On this account, the assembling of the material of this Part II of the *Twenty-Second Yearbook* has of necessity been much hurried, and some features that were originally contemplated have of necessity been omitted. It is hoped that members of the Society will be charitable toward minor inadequacies of presentation or editorial slips, if such there be, in view of the very great significance of the topic under discussion.

The writers of these chapters realize that they are presenting pioneer work and that their point of view has yet to gain universal, or even general acceptance among curriculum-makers and textbook writers. But they are convinced that they are on the right track and that the innovations they propose in methods of collecting, organizing, and presenting material in the field of the social studies should challenge the critical attention of our readers.

This *Yearbook*, it is felt, therefore, represents a satisfying continuation of the policy of the Society to organize and present to its members the newest and the best thought on the educational problems of the day.

GUY M. WHITTLE

FOREWORD

Periodically, in the progress of a dynamic society, the school curriculum needs inventory and readjustment. The curriculum being a conservative agency, tends to lag far behind the society for which it is held to be preparatory. Rarely does it anticipate social needs; seldom does it serve as a competent agency for social improvement.

Current methods of changing the curriculum are slow and wasteful because they rely upon suggestions of individual teachers meager textbook revisions, and committee reports. Such methods are indeed largely responsible for the hiatus between the curriculum and society. A more scientific procedure is possible: the systematic inventory of current practices and theories, the critical construction of hypotheses on the basis of it, and the use of objective analysis and experiment. This is the procedure that the makers of this Yearbook aspire to approximate.

Since inventory and evaluation is the first need, Section I presents an analysis of the current practices. It details the way in which social science curricula came to be what they are; it sketches needed changes in the social sciences; and it points out strategic points at which to begin reorganization.

Section II presents a number of definite illustrations of proposed reorganizations. Although constructed independently, these new types of curricula present impressive agreements in general point of view. For example, courses are developing in the direction of "general social sciences"; the junior high school has proved to be a promising first point of attack; the curriculum must prepare adequately for life; it must substitute pupil participation in activities for information about them.

To affect changes that shall have definite guarantees of permanent progress, the methods of the laboratory must supplant those of the arm-chair. Curriculum-making must become scientific. Prog-

ress in the use of more objective methods is illustrated by the chapters of Section III.

Finally much critical appraisement of proposed reorganizations is desired. Widespread debate of alternative schemes will advance progressive thinking and secure the general adoption of new proposals of superior value. Chapter 17 opens the discussion of the evaluation of current practices and of the proposals for reorganization outlined in the foregoing chapters.

HAROLD RUGG

SECTION I.—THE SITUATION AND THE NEED

CHAPTER I

DO THE SOCIAL STUDIES PREPARE PUPILS ADEQUATELY FOR LIFE ACTIVITIES?

HAROLD RUGG

The Lincoln School of Teachers College

In our schools upwards of twenty million children between the ages of 6 and 17 are preparing to meet the difficulties of industrial, social, and political life. Those difficulties are becoming increasingly great—in recent years they have brought about what almost amounts to an *impasse* in citizenship. The *impasse* has been frequently revealed by indifference to matters of public concern and by lack of trained intelligence on the part of the rank and file of our people to deal with their collective affairs. It appears to be very difficult, if not impossible, to secure an intelligent popular judgment on an industrial or political issue. In politics, for example, we do not weigh values; we vote bond issues. Predispositions caused by party affiliations and ancestral prejudices determine our reaction to the question of revising the tariff upward. The plumber who repairs my furnace, and my neighbor, the coal company owner across the street, respond to questions of wages, hours, or ownership of utilities on exactly the same bases—those of impulse and predisposition. Seldom are the facts of such situations reviewed, and rarely are actions upon them determined by deliberative judgment. Even the teacher is disposed to adopt or reject proposed educational reforms—the junior high school, supervised study, correlation, the project method, credit-for-quality, the Gary plan, the Dalton plan, or what not—without having really considered their implications.

Is it not clear that the vast majority of our people rarely deliberate? Is it not equally clear that critical judgment, instead of impulse, must be the basis upon which our social and political

decisions are made? Human conduct is so completely determined by these powerful tendencies to impulsive action, however, that almost insurmountable obstacles stand in the way of any agencies which are committed to the task of bringing such reform about.

THE RESPONSIBILITY AND OPPORTUNITY OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

These brief comments—merely captions for a full discussion of the gravity of the present situation—should throw into bold relief the task of the public school, and especially of those in it who are responsible for the social studies. It is to the curriculum of the social studies that we must look to bring our millions of growing youth into contact with the insistent problems of to-day. It is through social study that children can be given a complete acquaintance with accepted modes of living! Through it they can be brought to a sympathetic understanding of the conditions and problems of other peoples and how their present difficulties came about. Through participation in community and citizenship activities, children can develop the habit of helping to decide important issues of group life. Through the social sciences, they can learn to respect the alarming symptoms of break-down in city life and can have practice in thinking out practicable solutions. Of the crucial problems of industry and business, of credit, and of the artificial inflation of our standards of living, they can get some glimpse. Along with their growing respect for the achievements of our people in the mechanical conquest of a great continent, they can acquire a proper perspective of the retarded spiritual and cultural growth that has accompanied them. Knowledge about the issues of contemporary life and how they came to be what they are could be translated into tendencies to act intelligently upon them, provided the machinery of the social studies is properly organized.

Now this is in brief what children *could* get through the social studies. The question is: do they get it?

Careful study of the matter leads to but one conclusion: they do not. Neither in the content of materials nor in opportunity for practice in meeting the problems of social, industrial, and political life is the school fulfilling its obligations. In two particulars are

the social studies in need of definite change; first, in the character of the material which they set before children, and second, in the provision for first-hand participation in individual and group activities. Our children need not one, but many years of practice in reading, mulling over, and exchanging ideas about the most pertinent matters of industrial, social, and political life. Only those who have been trained through five, ten, twelve years of practice in deliberation will tend to use critical judgment about contemporary problems.

Adequate information, then, and practice in using it, both essentials of efficient social action in a democracy, are clearly desiderata for social science courses. The charge is that for neither of these is sufficient provision made under the existing scheme. So fundamental is this indictment that from this point I shall take up the needed changes in considerable detail.

First the charge that under the present scheme it is very difficult, if not impossible, for pupils to become intelligent and vigorous citizens, with the ability and inclination to decide issues from adequate information.¹

WHAT IS THE PRESENT CONTENT OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCE CURRICULUM?

The reader will find in the Appendix a brief statistical summary of the present content of social science courses.

It is of first importance to review the facts of present courses in history and geography, routine though it be. It is only from the school study of these subjects, as at present organized and taught, that at least 60 percent of our people receive definite

¹May I interject the comment, in passing, that my discussion is based on the definite hypothesis that the rank and file of our people have sufficient intellectual capacity to organize machinery to carry out their collective will effectively. I make this hypothesis deliberately, after dealing for some years with the facts of "abstract intelligence" and of educational and mental measurement. The point of view amounts to saying that a person with an I.Q. of, say, 100 can, if exposed to nine or ten years of rigorous practice in thinking, develop tendencies of deliberation which he will carry on through adult life. But the crux of this point of view is in the phrase "exposed to nine or ten years of rigorous practice in thinking." It is especially to the question of whether pupils are "exposed" under the present order that we here address ourselves.

preparation for participation in the group activities of life. History and geography on this account occupy a strategic place in the curriculum. Chapter V shows how they have arrived at their present position and how history especially has come to deal more and more with matters of moment to our citizens.

1. *History.* At the present time "history" is taught from the fourth school grade through the last year of the high school. In many school systems there are gaps of a year or more in the high school in which pupils are not required to study history. In general, however, children come into contact with this material in four or five thirty-minute exercises each week during six or seven school years.

In Grades I to IV in the typical public school, the instruction is primarily oral and consists of hero stories, stories of Indians, and of other forms of primitive life. Reading of stories of this type is also done to some extent. In addition to such material, most primary schools build up instruction around a few great holidays—Thanksgiving, Christmas, Lincoln's Birthday, Washington's Birthday, and Memorial Day. In Grade V the attempt is made to give a somewhat more sequential treatment of United States history from the Revolutionary War to the Civil War; the instruction is still organized around the lives of historical personages.

History in Grades VI, VII, VIII, and IX has become a very formal matter. Ancient times, mediaeval developments in Europe, and the 14th and 15th century European background of the periods of the discovery and colonization of America are presented in a rigidly chronological way. In Grades VII and VIII the political, governmental, and military features of American history are methodically mastered. In the ninth year, for more than a generation public schools have devoted their instruction to an intensive analytical study of ancient history—the oriental nations, Greece, Rome, and the Dark Ages. (I shall comment later on the improvements that have been made recently in the content of high-school courses.)

What do children get from these four years of intensive historical study at from 11 to 15 years of age? They learn countless facts and details about the political and militaristic developments

of the United States and of ancient and mediaeval times. They deal constantly with matters which affect government and national relations with other countries. They canvass minutely the rise and fall of kings, and the policies of prime ministers. In many localities they are still expected to learn the details of military campaigns, the minutiae of battles, and the tabulated provisions of treaties of peace.

The history that children study is thus obviously international, legalistic, and militaristic. It deals with the growth of our nation as a legal and political organization. For the most part it has ignored the social, industrial, and intellectual aspects of its growth.

2. *Geography.* Paralleling the historical material is a body of facts which for two generations has been called "geography." In the primary school geography assumes the task of acquainting the pupil with his material environment. In a thoroughly informal and, in the main, concrete way, children in the first three or four grades learn the meaning of the earth and its formation, the facts of distance, direction, weather, seasons, and the like. Teachers have discovered meaningful ways of developing conceptions of child life in other lands through oral stories, some dramatization, and, from the third grade up, by readings from informal books.

But, from the fifth grade on, "Geography" becomes a formidable affair—a typical "school subject." Textbooks ("Book I" and "Book II") are used commonly from the fifth through the eighth grade. The materials are organized by continents, by countries, and by regional divisions. Children canvass systematically all the physical features of such land divisions, but rarely have the materials been organized so as to aid them definitely in either remembering them or in using them in the solution of problems later on. Countless facts are learned about states and their boundaries, their populations, and capitals; chief cities, their location, industries; and farm products. Lists of products are memorized in precise connection with the cities or regions from which they come. Similarly, mountain systems, river systems, and facts of longitude and latitude are learned by rote.

Veritable encyclopedias are these geography books with which we teach children about the important physical, economic, and

social surroundings in which they find themselves. But tests have shown that children cannot and do not remember these facts; and studies of social demands show furthermore that there is no need to be able to remember most of them. Geographical textbooks of recent issue, for example, mention prominently more than 500 cities, with the presumption that teachers are going to have children master the important facts concerning them. Likewise, 50 to 60 river systems, more than two-thirds of them in other countries; and mountain ranges the same. One of the most serious phases of the whole affair is that the material deals so largely with other continents than our own and with foreign countries, with a multiplicity of detail that is practically as great as in the study of our own nation. In other words, the geography textbooks try to cover too much territory.

3. *Civics.* So much for the present scope of history and geography. What about the third of the social sciences, civics? Students a generation ago were studying in one of the high-school years a subject called "The Constitution." This doubtless consisted of a precise analysis of the structure of government, with special emphasis on the "Constitution." The specific provisions of the latter, each of us, I am sure, learned by heart. Until recent years, the structure of our national, state, county, and local governments has occupied the foreground of our "civics" discussions in schools. We have allowed children to see the governmental engine and to study its parts, but only occasionally have we let them observe it in action.

Very striking advances, however, have recently been made; "Community Civics" has entered the school. The title implies that civic affairs, not merely the structure of government, are to be examined by the pupils. A widespread effort of the past ten years has produced scores of new "community civics" textbooks for our schools. Most of these have been adapted for the upper years of the high school, but an occasional book has been designed to aid the intermediate grades—the fourth, fifth, and sixth and the junior high school. These innovations have associated the study of various elements of community welfare with the study of the mechanics of government. Hence, through this new material, pupils in

the senior high school are now given paragraphs relating to conditions in our cities. They read about how cities are planned and how communities develop. Important elements, like transportation and communication, water supply, police and fire protection, health, and the conservation of resources are beginning to appear in these high-school textbooks.

We should remember, however, that few of such innovations have reached the elementary or junior-high schools. We still drill children through the history of the making of the Constitution, the text of it, and the amendments to it; we teach them the powers of the Federal government; descriptions of the presidency; the powers of Congress; the composition of Federal departments; the duties of Federal courts. The same kind of thing is taught with respect to state and local governments. Now and then a timid reference is made to new forms of government; the commission form of city government, and the city manager plan are discussed, together with the Initiative, Recall, and Referendum. In all this our habit is to take the machine to pieces, remembering the location of parts, but never to speculate as to how they work in the whole or whether the whole might possibly be made to work better.

Likewise in the more progressive textbooks, brief references are now made to developments in the organization of industry and business. Social problems are occasionally discussed, such as the protection of the poor, crime, marriage and divorce, immigration, defectives in society, slums, housing problems, the negro problem, etc. But altogether these items do not as yet form any very integral part of the whole textual content, nor are they presented in such fashion that students are forced to do constructive thinking upon them.

RECENT IMPROVEMENTS IN THE CHARACTER OF READING COURSES OFFERED IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

What has just been said should not be permitted to cloud our perspective of recent accomplishments in the senior high school. The ten-year campaign for new material in the high-school curriculum, led by workers like Mr. Dunn and Mr. Judd, has already brought sharp changes and suggestive indications of new tenden-

cies. Turn to Mr. Davis's table (Appendix) and note the striking results of this movement. Out of 1180 high schools canvassed in the North Central area, 1148 now give courses in "community civics." The movement for "social studies" to replace compartment-like courses in history, civil government, and geography has made definite strides. The high school at least now recognizes that pupils should read and discuss descriptions of community life.

There are three distressing limitations that we should keep in mind, however. First, this course in community civics is only a half-year course; we have gone so far as to concede to the discussion of current affairs, one-eighth of the established four-year time allotment for history (Ancient, European, English, and American). It is obvious that little can be done in this short time. More of that in a moment. For the time being, we can be thankful for our accomplishment in forcing a half year of "community life" into the history curriculum.

Second, 85 percent of the schools bar children of the grades below the eleventh from the opportunity to take these new types of courses. For them, "history and geography" must suffice. How far they suffice we shall inquire into presently. The fact is that two-thirds of our "standardized" high schools reserve these courses for the very last year of the school, the twelfth grade. By this method we permit not more than one-fifth of our children to come into contact with these discussions of current living, for the other four-fifths leave the school before that time.

Third, these courses are still elective. This means that by no means all of those students who remain to the last two years of the high school take them. Now if these community civics courses were upstanding treatments of the problems of contemporary life, and on that account demanded as much mental maturity as the school scheme could provide, then there would be reason behind this postponement of such courses until the last school year. But this is not the case. They are brief descriptions of conditions in city, town, and country, and as such they belong to a far lower grade. In the few schools where they are given a fair show they are handled effectively by pupils in the lower years of the *junior* high school—that is, in the seventh and eighth as well as the ninth

grade. About seven percent of the North Central high schools now offer them in the ninth grade. Miss Colloton's tables show, however, that little or no systematic social science instruction is given beyond conventional history and geography in the seventh and eighth grades.

The lodging of "community civics" in the eleventh and twelfth grades represents only a part of the process of putting new materials into the high-school curriculum. Two other courses which formerly have been regarded as useful only to the college are crowding into the eleventh and twelfth years—economics and sociology. About fifteen percent of our schools are offering optional courses in these subjects. Carried over from the college, they are truly of the college. The texts used (see Mr. Davis's table) cover the same scope and are made in the same form as those used in the college. Critical examination of them raises grave doubts as to their adaptability to the high school, or to the college for that matter.

What is happening is very clear indeed: the new social sciences are coming into the elementary and secondary curriculum along exactly the same route that mathematics and science travelled before them. They are timidously working their way down from the college, first appearing in the senior year of the high school, cropping out in lower years where administrators are more far-sighted in their trial of new materials; and finally, after two or three generations of committee reports and unrecorded trial and error, the prospects are that they may eventually find lodgment at some convenient level of the graded scheme. It took fifty years, for instance, for algebra to move down from the college curriculum and find an acceptable compartment in the ninth grade. And now the scientific movement is disturbing the complacency of the defenders of this grade location by showing that some of its processes should be, and can be, effectively employed as part of the mathematics in the seventh school year; other processes can be employed in the eighth year.

This empirical method of grade placement of curriculum materials is very sure, but very wasteful. Fifty years could have been cut to five in the case of algebra if scientific and systematic experiments had been resorted to instead of unrecorded and haphazard

"experience." All that was needed was to try the same materials in several different grades in similar schools at the same time, measure the results obtained, and carry on an intensive analysis of learning. To-day the science of education is equipped to set up such an experiment. Furthermore, it is obligated to do it with each of the chief divisions of our curriculum materials. The besetting sin of current methods of grade placement of subject matter has been this very practice of "trying" this course or "trying" that, with nothing to show for it after an entire generation but the vague unrecorded judgments of teachers, that "it worked in my eighth grade" or "it positively will not go in the ninth year."

In summary, then, while there are important gains in the new types of curriculum materials that are appearing in progressive high schools, the fact remains that preparation for the problems of neighborhood, community, and national life is principally provided through the study of United States, English, European, and ancient history. Even "commercial geography" and "industrial history" with their rich factual materials are still regarded as "vocational," and only a relatively small proportion of the whole high-school student body deals with these important materials at all.

IMPORTANT QUESTIONS ABOUT THE PRESENT CURRICULUM IN HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY, AND CIVICS

These running comments on the outline of the social science curriculum in our schools serve as an introduction to six important questions that should be answered concerning it.

1. Does The Present Curriculum Treat Adequately the Pressing Industrial, Social, and Political Problems of the Day?

It does not. One can arrive at no other answer if he analyzes carefully and impartially the materials of current courses.

I have recently canvassed four of the most commonly used history textbooks to determine the extent to which the pressing problems of the day are discussed. A few illustrative facts are given in the tables in Chapter XV.² These are thoroughly typical.

²The details on investigations of current and proposed courses will be published in 1923 and 1924 as a series of social science monographs.

They are supplied here only to show the kind of evidence concerning the present curriculum which impelled my colleagues and myself to commit ourselves to the preparation of new materials.

Specifically, we tabulated each paragraph of material in some 200 of the most authoritative books that dealt with the outstandingly important and insistent matters of contemporary life. From the eleven topics under which the material fell came our complete list of some 300 problems, compiled as described in Chapter XV. That these problems are crucial in our lives to-day cannot be doubted. Curriculum materials in the social sciences should prepare pupils definitely for an understanding of them.

Who can question that the "disappearance of free land and the decline in the number of owners" is an important issue in American life? *Yet in no one of these four recent and widely used textbooks is this problem definitely discussed!* Neither do children in their several years of study of American history meet critical discussions of the evolution of land policies in the United States. Only one book out of four mentions them; and its discussion is a conspicuous exception. It devotes two and three-fourths pages to the evils of land monopoly, one-half page to wasteful agricultural methods, and one-half page to mismanagement of timber and mineral lands. The other three books *totally ignore* the dozen crucial problems of wise ownership and development of minerals, forest land, and water power.

This does not mean that the texts make no historical references to land and land policies. They all do that, but in a thoroughly legalistic manner, without in any way relating the history of the matter and its current phase. A page and a half to the Survey Act of 1785 and the Ordinance of 1787; a half page reference to the sale of western land; three-quarters of a page to policies of land disposal, a half page to "price of land reduced 1821," one page to land surveys in the Northwest—so the recital runs. The discussions are brief, text-like, chiefly narration of legislative acts. Occasionally, only occasionally, one of the authors comes close to considering the evolution of some vital matter. In eight lines in one book the *fact* is stated that the free land of the West was largely taken up by 1870-1890. Imagine a student 13 to 17 years

of age getting the significance of the disappearance of free land, the growth of cities with all the accompanying problems, from any such presentation as that. It is absurd, the reader will say. It is absurd indeed. And the distressing thing about it is that it is typical. Our historians do not give children definite historical discussions of crucial matters.

Take other typical illustrations from these books: the distribution of goods, and problems of the market; for example, the effect of the way in which our railroads, canals, etc., are owned on the efficiency with which agricultural and industrial products are marketed. A plain statement can be made. The history of such matters is not taken up in textbooks. Current materials practically ignore the "market" development of the past generation. Where do children learn about co-operative movements among farmers; the control of grain elevators; rates, credit facilities for marketing agricultural products? Nowhere in these textbooks. The only references made to such issues are found in a two-line statement in one book to the effect that a farm loan system is being set up by the government, and a quarter-page statement in another that the Federal Reserve System was developed "to aid small borrowers, especially in the country." And these four books are undoubtedly the best we give our children to read!

What about the history of the labor movement? One book contains just one half page on labor unions and factory laws and one page on employers' associations and welfare work. The best of the four gives a total of five pages to the history of the movement for consideration of hours, wages, profits, and control. These pages are not a continuous treatment of this matter but are scattered in brief bits in several parts of the text. A third book devotes a total of one and three-fourths pages to all aspects of the labor movement, while a fourth gives three and three-fourths pages.

We need not multiply illustrations of the way in which our school histories fail to supply our children with adequate treatments of contemporary problems or their historical development. Precisely the same conclusions can be drawn for such problems as the following: "On what basis shall be admit immigrants to America?", "How can we assimilate immigrants into American

industry so that at the earliest possible moment they can become economically independent?", or any one of ten other immigration problems. From the field of the social problems, take that of adult illiteracy or any one of fifteen other problems that deal with education and the formation of public opinion. Should young Americans be given an appreciation of America's danger in not developing a spiritual and artistic capacity commensurate with her remarkable mechanical and business achievements? It will be difficult—I personally believe impossible—for them to get it from the contact that they now have with such matters in current courses.

What about problems of the American city? Is it not wise to give children years of contact with such general matters as these: "Problem of how to give to community life, both urban and rural, the physical attractiveness and the intimate neighborhood relations which characterize the American suburban community," "Problem in large cities of satisfactorily housing the industrial worker near his place of work," or any one of twelve or more other problems of the city? Fifty million people in the United States live in cities. Crucial problems of living together to-day revolve largely around affairs of city life. Yet it is very difficult for pupils in our schools to obtain from the material of the social subjects clear notions of what these problems are, to say nothing of any real practice in debating them.

2. Are Problems of Government Adequately Treated by the Histories and Civics Books Which Pay Chief Attention to Political Affairs?

We tried to find a continuous and critical treatment of different ways of financing the local, state, and national governments. In only one of the four new histories examined was there any discussion that could be interpreted as critical; that one was a page and a half of discursive presentation of arguments on the tariff, nine lines describing the Payne-Aldrich tariff, three lines on the Underwood tariff. It was the same story with respect to the history of governmental efforts to supply credit facilities. One of the history texts gives a total of one page to a statement of legislation about federal banks; a second one, one and one-half pages; the

third, one-fourth page to the mint and the national bank; the fourth, one and three-fourths pages.

In not one of the books could we find a discussion of the history of prices and the cost of living. True enough, if the pupils remain in school to the eleventh or twelfth grade and elect a course in economics, they might come upon some reference to the problem of prices and cost of living. Most likely they would not. But less than 30 percent of our pupils stay in school until the eleventh and twelfth grades. Where, then, do our makers of curricula expect children to become intelligent about matters of this type?

Is it not perfectly clear from the instances we have discussed that pupils cannot obtain a grasp of the critical problems of contemporary life from current school histories? Yet it is the "school history" upon which we now rely for our preparation for citizenship.

If space permitted, the same situation could be shown to be true of European and English history upon which we depend in the high school to give children an acquaintance with America's problems in dealing with other countries. Our analysis of this matter will be published in monographs later on.

3. Do the New School Histories Pay More Attention to Industrial and Social Matters than the Older Ones Did?

They do. For a generation there have been frequent demands that our school histories deal more definitely with industrial and social matters. Children were being educated for a world which was primarily industrial, yet the histories dealt largely with political and militaristic affairs. Note how clearly this is shown by Table XII, Appendix. Eighty-two percent of the material in eight histories published before 1860 was devoted to political and military matters. Of this more than half was militaristic.

Under the fire of educational reform the emphasis on military affairs has been remarkably lessened, at least in our better books. How clearly the contrast appears in Table XIII, Appendix. Eight commonly used American histories now devote on the average less than 15 percent of their space to military affairs. Histories are coming from the press in which the authors (specialists in content

as they are) have deliberately excluded practically all of the details of wars.

As the interest in military content has lessened, that in economic and social activity material has sharply increased. Children who studied history before 1860 rarely had to do with such matters at all. To-day more than one third of the content of our school books deals with economic and social aspects of history.

Real gains have been made in this direction by those who wish the school curriculum to become more directly an agency for social regeneration. But paralleling this increased emphasis on industrial and social life there has been a marked tendency among the new historians to use much of the space formerly occupied by "militarism" to enlarge the discussions of political matters. The reason for this is clear. Most of our writers of school histories are still college professors of history. Being that, they are more interested in government than they are in industry and community life. The result is that even the newest histories devote on the average almost exactly half the space to political life. (See Table XIII, Appendix).

But our studies also show that the leaven is working from the lower grades upward. Whereas 60 percent of the content of high-school books is political, only 40 percent of the seventh and eighth-grade books is political. Of course, we have no real criterion as yet for telling what the true proportions should be. When the scientific investigations of content now under way in various parts of the country are completed, we shall be able to evaluate much more soundly the emphasis that should be placed upon the different aspects of life. In the meantime, as a tentative judgment based on our investigation of contemporary problems, I would say that not more than 30 percent of the total school time devoted to social studies should be given to political and militaristic matters. I anticipate that our further studies will reduce rather than increase this proportion.

4. Do Social Science Textbooks Furnish Backgrounds Rich Enough for Constructive Interpretation?

Are the reading materials of history, civics, and geography full enough in historical background so that children can live over the

experiences which are demanded for a real understanding of the important features of present life? Not more than a small proportion of children can actually experience these social, industrial, and political happenings and then only in diminutive form. So if they are to secure an appreciation of the world they live in and how it came to be what it is, they must depend on reading about it and discussing it. It is most pertinent, therefore, to raise questions concerning the wealth of detail in our current materials.

A careful analysis of our textbooks leaves no room for doubt as to the answer to our inquiry. *The textbooks do not furnish enough detail to give students a real depth of feeling and comprehension for the matters under consideration.*

We are confronted by one outstanding issue: Shall our curriculum materials consist of very full treatments of a restricted number of fundamental matters, or of very brief treatments of a wide range of subjects? At present they are of the latter kind. Social science textbooks are veritable encyclopedias. They are reference books. They devote a half page to this and ten lines to that. The Erie Canal gets eight lines; the Tariff of 1816, 12 lines; the Homestead Act, 6 lines. I have before me as I write several typical textbooks and detailed statistical tabulations of their contents. The discovery and development of our great mineral resources, for example, is treated in a half page in five out of eight of the most commonly used ones. (See Table XIV, Appendix.) How can children hope to get a feeling for the contribution of mineral resources to our present problems? How can they understand America's present difficulties in assimilating fourteen millions of foreign born, when all they read about it is a paragraph on the coming of the Irish and Germans between 1845 and 1855, the passage of the Immigration Law of 1882, or as in another book, a paragraph on the new "three percent law" of 1921. There is but one answer; they cannot. They do not get a feeling for these matters which will lead to a real understanding of them or to an inclination to act upon their knowledge.

Textbook makers have been restricted to approximately a stipulated number of pages. To exceed that number would result in a text so expensive as to prohibit its use in the schools. On the other

hand, school administrators and teachers have been in large part responsible for the encyclopedism of school books, for they have demanded some discussion of *everything* in the field. And what the school people overlooked, Boards of Education, Chambers of Commerce, patriotic societies, or fraternal organizations have not failed to demand.

What could be the result of this method of making curriculum materials but an encyclopedia? The only *complete* book ever put together within a single cover is an encyclopedia. So histories, geographies, and civics books have attempted to tell *all* the story, mention *all* the cities (600 or more), treat *all* the elements of community life. And of course no one story or problem or topic has been or could be treated fully enough to give immature youth a true picture of it.

What is needed in place of the brief and isolated paragraphs we now give children to read? *A wealth of anecdote, narration, and description about a few worth-while matters.* Two changes appear to be imperative with respect to the content of the social science materials. Certainly the first step is the selection of topics for study which are of proved value to all people. We must then find ways of presenting these in the form of readings and activities so rich in human detail as to make the pupil's school experience as nearly as possible a replica of his later life experience. Confining our discussion for the time being to the reading materials, does this not mean that we must come to a much wider use of the episode, the anecdote, the story, than we have hitherto made? Three years of investigation of the matter have convinced me that we must.

The issue in so far as it touches history can be put in another way. Shall we supply children with an outline to read early in the grades, depending upon life experiences or "the teacher" to elaborate it, or shall we introduce our youth through all the lower and intermediate grades to many detailed examples of life, rounding up the threads into an outline in their more mature years? The present school histories which are used all the way from the seventh to the twelfth grades are *outlines*. To the children their brief paragraphs are nothing but topics and sub-topics. That text writ-

ters themselves recognize this is shown by their meticulous care to set out things to be memorized in center headings, side headings, italics, bold-faced headings, and marginal headings. These outlines would be valuable to pupils and teachers if used in a senior-high-school grade, say in a half year or a year's course which came after several years of detailed reading, discussion, and concrete activities.

In a later chapter there is a detailed illustration of new curriculum materials. We have tried to select a few pages which would convey as complete a picture as possible of new ways of presenting curriculum materials. Obviously it will not give the reader a complete feeling for what is done through the full scope of the materials themselves. The sample we have given, however, illustrates the use of the "episode," the need for which I have referred to. Notice that instead of telling pupils in a few lines that cities were crude affairs in 1845, we have quoted either eye-witness accounts or extracts from fiction which are true descriptions. Instead of merely telling them in so many words that it is difficult to Americanize the southeastern Europeans, we let them read a dozen or more *episodes* of actual Americanizing experiences. Any number of true stories can be collected from the immigration literature. A score of books which contain such accounts are available to the school which will put them in its library. Almost every city or town library will have some of them. But if it is difficult for school people to obtain the books giving the full accounts, they should demand of textbook makers that these rich human episodes be incorporated in their texts. Instead of being books of "texts" (how well named they are!) they must become real reading books. Our experience in preparing new materials proves to us conclusively that it is possible to collect and organize episodic material which will give pupils a deep and broad grasp of the topics discussed. *Only when school administrators and teachers decline to accept anything but rich reading material will text writers go to the trouble (it requires prodigious search in very well stocked libraries) and book publishers go to the expense of providing fuller readings.*

But in making the demand for a wealth of material, I do not mean to imply that it is only the human episode that we need to use. There is just as great a need to supply the pupil with quantitative facts in graphic and statistical form. School histories never graph their facts. Only rarely do they even present historical trends in statistical form. Perhaps the historians would not regard material presented in that form as history. If that is true, so much the worse for the historians! Psychologically, the feeling for development, growth, movement, can be set up very clearly indeed by striking graphs. And they are most effective and economical teaching devices. Graphs and statistical tables have been thought of as the property solely of the mathematics class. Let us make the fullest use of them in the social science class as well. Of course, the pupil must be taught to read and make graphs. Our experience has shown us that this is a simple matter even in the fourth and fifth grades.

Chapter XI provides concrete illustrations of what we have found to be a successful use of graphs. It also supplies examples of a more generous use of maps, which we are convinced must be resorted to by textbook makers. Maps which teach one or at most a few things are needed. *Furthermore, maps should be used in reading books*, and closely connected to the discussion of the point under consideration.

So much, then, for the need of the episode, the long story, and more graphic, statistical, and pictorial matter in social science materials. I have given but brief illustrations of the need and ways of satisfying it. A volume might well be written on it. The next issue is so closely related, however, that we will turn to it at once.

5. Are Social Science Materials so Organized as to Give Thorough Practice in Deliberation?

They are not. Furthermore, it is difficult to believe that they even promote practice in deliberation. It is my confident judgment that much of the organization of current geography texts, for example, would inhibit thinking rather than encourage it. The charge is so serious that we should examine it carefully.

I have already commented on the universal propensity of human beings to act upon impulse. Unconsidered response is character-

istic of the man in the street. The responsibility of the social sciences for aborting this instinctive tendency has already been pointed out.

Now what is necessary in the organization of curriculum materials if this obligation is to be fulfilled? First and foremost, an arrangement by which pupils will be confronted constantly with definite issues, obstacles which block the smooth passage of thought. Not the learning of *texts*, but the solving of *problems* is what we need. Our materials must be *organized around issues*, problems—unanswered questions which the pupil recognizes as important and which he really strives to unravel.

For one thing it is the very descriptive, paragraphic, encyclopedic organization to which I have referred that makes such learning at the present time impossible. *Textbooks cannot be compilations of "texts" and at the same time provide the data for problem-solving.* For the pupil to think, he first must be mentally blocked and thwarted until he is obsessed with a desire to clear up the matter; he must also have at hand the data, the facts on all sides of the issue, before he can think constructively on it; and third, he must be practiced in deliberation on situations that are somewhat similar.

The following conversation was overheard recently between two ninth-grade boys. A new book under one boy's arm caused the other to ask what it was. The title was given; the book was one used in a ninth-grade class in the school.

"Do you like it?" was asked.

"No, don't believe I do."

"Why not?"

"All questions and no answers," was the laconic reply.

The makers of that book are more surely treading the right path than most of our curriculum makers. Their materials did not consist altogether of questions. Rather voluminous data were given the pupils, too. But the boy who made the remark and his friends in the class were constantly faced with questions which they had to "think" about; they were supplied facts from which to find the answers, directed also to search other sources for additional facts; but they were compelled to do real thinking, draw

conclusions, make inferences, unravel tangles, and surmount every obstacle that stood in their way. Teachers from time out of mind have set this very goal as their chief intellectual aim.³

To do it with the present materials, under the hampering conditions of heavy teaching programs, demands almost a genius for a teacher. Histories are straight chronological narratives, arranged by "periods," with questions set at the ends of chapters. Any one page of any commonly used geography contains a score or more of important facts, but they are almost never organized about a problem or presented in such factual form that a pupil will be stimulated to try to overcome the difficulties.

There are given in Chapter XI some crude examples of attempts to do this very thing. I am presenting them with much hesitation, as they are purely tentative and experimental; they are being experimented upon now in printed form for the first time.

The reply of the textbook maker may be that the job of organizing the material so as to stimulate the pupil to think is the teacher's. The answer to this, of course, is that there is no reason why the materials should be set so as to *hamper* the teacher in doing this; and every reason in the world, on the other hand, for aiding him by providing a thought-provoking, rich, and well-arranged organization.

6. Does the Present Division of Social Science Materials into the Separate Subjects of History, Geography, Civics, and Economics, Aid or Hamper the Teacher and the Pupil?

Personally, I am confident that the present organization of social science materials hampers the teacher, but I have no scientific basis for such an answer. We have found abundant arguments for the need of a unified, continuous social science curriculum from our study of the way in which materials from the different subjects are demanded for a really successful lesson. How, for example, can one teach children the history of transportation, the history of our westward movement, of the settling of our country, and the exploitation of its great natural resources without constantly

³L. V. Koos's investigation and other studies of the aims of teaching the social sciences make this very clear.

calling up facts of topography, location, and the like, which for several generations have been called "geography?" It can't be done. Furthermore, good teachers do not try to do it. Skilled teachers have always taken their material from wherever it happened to be found, irrespective of how it was catalogued or pigeon-holed. How can a pupil obtain a really clear notion of the way thirty-three million immigrants came to this country between 1820 and 1920 without having the facts of the economies of Ireland in earlier decades, of the political relations of Ireland and England, of the economic and political history of Germany, foreign living conditions, the status of agriculture and industry in both northern and southeastern Europe? But the accounts which are necessary to present any of these matters make use of history—political, economic, and social—of geography, of international relations. And clear handling of such important topics forces the teacher to incorporate also materials from economics, political science, sociology.

At this point just one criterion, it seems to me, should guide the curriculum maker. He should assemble around definite problems and issues those illustrative materials that the mind imperatively needs to deal with the matter in hand. He should gather these materials from whatever school "subject" tradition may have housed them in. And he should put them together in such natural relationships that it will be possible for the pupil to call to his aid at any moment the data *naturally* needed at that moment to answer his pressing question.

The issue is all-important. It deserves the fullest consideration—a detailed discussion to which neither this chapter nor the whole *Yearbook* can do justice. The illustrations here given are all too few, I fear, to be as convincing as we feel they should be. They are typical, however, of scores of others which the social science worker can himself call to mind.

This brings us to a further indictment against the social science courses as taught at present.

7. What Dominates Our Social Science Instruction: Reading about Life or Participation in Life Activities?

Is there any doubt about the answer to this question? If there is, Mr. Davis's table will clear it up.⁴ The social science curriculum is primarily a reading curriculum. Reading and answering teachers' questions about the reading engages nearly all the time of our elementary and high-school students. Our schools are attempting to fit pupils for participation in social, industrial, and political activities by letting them read about practical situations, rather than by having them practice by taking part in them throughout the years of their preparation.

The best fourth or fifth of our high schools have in recent years come to make some provision for learning through active participation. These opportunities range all the way from arousing "citizenship sentiments" by means of weekly assembly talks to excursions to certain political and industrial institutions or to "practicing" citizenship by means of scout organizations, debating clubs, and student self-governing agencies. Eighty percent of the best public high schools have debating clubs. We do not know how many pupils take part in the work, certainly not more than 20 percent, probably a far smaller proportion than that. Debating in regular school classes is rare, although it affords one of the best opportunities for the interplay of minds and training in deliberation and the handling of evidence that there is.

In about a fourth of our standard high schools students get practice in carrying on their own governing organizations. Half of the schools hold mock elections. About half carry on scouting and thrift organizations. Slightly more than half conduct a school paper. To the latter a negligible percentage of all students actively contribute, however. While about a third of our high schools offer dramatics, only a small fraction participate. And there is no knowing to what extent the dramatic work contributes to an appreciation of social, economic, and political matters. The influence is probably only incidental.

It is clear, then, that our social sciences are dominated by reading courses which stress the acquisition of information *about* life. The schools are following the easiest way, the path of least resist-

⁴Mr. Davis' table, quoted in the Appendix details the facts for 1164 high schools in the North Central Association.

ance. School-book writers have brought together compactly in semester and full-year texts much information *about* our government and how it developed, descriptions of certain aspects of community life, of industry, and business. Children, organized as groups, read definite assignments from these texts—in the main *only* from these—and answer teachers' questions on the reading. *Little opportunity is provided in the rank and file of our schools for pupils themselves to lead in organizing and carrying on the group discussions.*

The point of all this is that American schools have not yet learned how to provide *activities* by which most of the children are brought into first-hand contact with local, national, and world affairs of a social, industrial, and political nature. Undoubtedly matters *are* getting better. More and more schools *are* letting boys and girls mingle together in social groups, giving them practice in organizing themselves, and in learning to defend and refute points of view. *But the progress is slow if these recent surveys have it right.* Even on paper, an astonishingly small proportion of our pupils are given opportunities for *practice in citizenship.*

What theories is this practice based upon? No theories at all, I fear. The present practice wasn't born—it just grew. The practice implicitly assumes, however, that clear thinking and right conduct will issue from the mere acquiring of information. We know perfectly well that *clear thinking emanates only from continued practice in thinking and right conduct only from practice in right acting.* If any lesson at all is to be drawn from the statistics in the Appendix, it is that, while some school people are recognizing the importance of these principles and are acting upon them, the majority are not. The movement which is aimed at providing pupils with an opportunity to initiate and organize has affected only the best fourth of our administrators and teachers. The bulk of Mr. Davis's table deals with "giving information through" courses in civics, courses in economics, courses in sociology, courses in current events, courses in morals, manners, life problems, and the like.

At any rate, the present scheme of instruction is a teacher-leadership scheme. Pupils wait for their cues from the teacher—

they rarely initiate, organize, argue for or insist on points of view which they themselves have developed through inner drives of their own origination. We have pleaded long for the "spontaneous teacher." Our present concern in developing him tends, I fear, to obstruct the development of spontaneity in the pupil. It is this spontaneousness, initiated from within by overpowering interest, drive, urge (call it what you will), that we are not getting through our reading courses. And we can not hope to get it while we neglect activity. We must have activity in class groups within the school, provide informal extra-class activities for pupil participation, and make these such that the pupils will learn through them how to take part in their all-important out-of-school activities.

OTHER INSISTENT ISSUES IN SOCIAL SCIENCE CURRICULUM-MAKING

Although this discussion of needed changes has already exceeded its space, there remain unconsidered at least three other issues of importance. They can be commented upon very briefly.

The first one can be set up as follows: Shall historical backgrounds be broken up transversely into periods or shall they be divided longitudinally and the entire development of a particular problem, institution, or activity discussed without interruption? The present scheme of instruction in public schools breaks history up into "blocks," or periods, and discusses all the threads of development within one period before moving on to the next. Two difficulties result from the use of this method: first, the story tends to move very slowly indeed—the instruction is characterized by an analytical method and by the filling in of too much detail; second, the story never reaches the present and thus earlier times are not closely tied up to present-day matters as they should be. Hence it appears to be worth while to experiment with materials which have been constructed on the other basis, to discuss the history of a whole group of related problems together, to bring the account to date each time. An illustration is described in Chapter XI.

A second issue deals with another phase of the question, "How much of the history shall be taught at any one time?" It is this: Shall history be taught by a continuous account which fills in practically all of the details, or would it be better to use a scheme

of sharp contrasts which bring out a particular epoch sharply against another one, say the present period? Our public school courses employ the first one; but experimentation with the second gives promise of fruitful results. It makes the history move rapidly, while the first method makes it move very slowly indeed. And it makes an unfamiliar and remote situation stand out sharply and clearly against a more familiar and more recent one.

We should be very clear, however, that this proposal of sharp contrasts does not imply neglect of chronological arrangement. If ideas of sequence, continuity, and historical development are to be learned, pupils must study them in chronological order. The issue is *not* the chronological vs. the psychological (whatever the latter may be!). The issue underlying this whole discussion turns on the question of *how much of the detail of history is going to be told at any one time*. The new proposals suggest that much less than is embodied in current courses should be given.

There is a third and final issue which makes clear another aspect of the question of an excessive amount of detail in current materials. The full-chronological-block method of the present history arrangement and current methods of organizing geography lead to a very *diffuse* type of material. Matters to be comprehended as a whole are not tied up together in naturally related units. It is proposed, with illustrations in this *Yearbook*, that a definite "problem" organization be followed instead; it is believed that this will insure that such materials will be taught together as can most naturally be learned together. In this way nothing will be handled by the pupil that is not needed in answering definite questions.

The charges against the present order in the curriculum are now all before us. The issues have been brought into the open so that the proponents of things-as-they-are and the advocates of change can meet them squarely. On two general counts the present scheme is indicted—*inadequate materials, and insufficient provision for pupil-activity*. The defenders of the existing materials and their present organization now know exactly what they need to combat if they wish to take up the cudgels to perpetuate them.

The task of the *Yearbook* from this point on is to supply illustrations of the kinds of change that educational reform demands; likewise to show how they can be brought into general practice. Mr. Judd's chapter carries on the discussion by showing that the junior high school is the favorable point at which to introduce social studies into the school curriculum and he sketches the considerations that must be dealt with in doing it. Mr. Marshall outlines a proposed junior-high-school course and in the fifth chapter presents a detailed illustration of the kind of material it will contain. Then follow in succession six other examples of reorganized courses, together with such theoretical comment and discussion as their authors feel called upon to make.

Information is needed concerning the more objective methods by which the new curricula are being constructed. That is supplied by the material of Section III. Chapter IV tells how the present courses came to be what they are, thereby supplying historical evidence to enable us to evaluate the new methods against the old. With these materials in hand, we are ready for criticisms of the proposed changes. These we have in Mr. McMurry's chapter.

CHAPTER II

INTRODUCING SOCIAL STUDIES INTO THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

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Any practical plan for inserting a new subject in the American school program will have to take account of the existing courses of study. The complaint is often heard when additions to the present curriculum are suggested that all of the available time and energy of pupils in the elementary schools are now consumed in an already overcrowded program. New subjects are referred for the most part to the high school or college because in these higher institutions there is greater flexibility owing to the elective system and also less necessity of careful organization of the materials of instruction since students are supposed to be mature enough to assimilate ideas even if they are somewhat abstractly presented. It was considerations such as these that brought it about in years past that civics in its various forms was thought of as a high-school subject.

The agitation of the last few years for a fuller treatment of social problems in the schools cannot, however, be satisfied by elective high-school courses on social institutions. The agitation grows out of a conviction that all pupils must be made aware of the problems of social life. This means that there must be devised some way of teaching elementary-school pupils some aspects of social science.

A second difficulty appears when the attempt is made to go down into the elementary schools with lessons on social phenomena. Pupils do not have a broad enough experience to make it possible for them to comprehend society. Society is an intangible entity. Its organization cannot readily be depicted in maps and its operations cannot be reduced to simple formulas.

A third difficulty, which may be referred to as an administrative obstacle, is perhaps more serious than either of the first two mentioned. Teachers are not prepared to teach social studies. Most of them are inexperienced girls who have never seen industry or government in its larger aspects and are wholly unaware of the problems of social organization. What is more, these teachers are not disposed to bestir themselves to add to the knowledge which they now have of the conventional school subjects any information on the new problems which a course in social studies would have to attack. If teachers could not hide behind the plea of a crowded curriculum and of pupil immaturity, they would probably come forward frankly with the statement that they are not interested in social studies.

Let us consider the three difficulties referred to and see what solutions can be suggested.

First, as to finding a place in the program, the present happens to be a very opportune time for the discussion to come up. The country is passing through a reconstruction of its school system which is directly traceable to the conviction that elementary schools have accomplished their primary purpose of teaching the rudimentary subjects by the end of the sixth grade. The time was when pupils went to school only a few weeks in the year; when school equipment was meager and teachers were without professional preparation for their work. At that time the rudimentary phases of reading, writing and arithmetic occupied the whole of the eight years of the elementary school. As the school opportunity of the individual pupil expanded, one subject after another was drawn into the program. First came geography, then history and literature, and finally prevocational and vocational courses of various types. The trend of all these additions has been in the direction of a better exposition of social life. The enrichment of the curriculum has now gone far enough so that in the later years of the elementary curriculum the rudimentary subjects have come to take a secondary place. The reading in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades is no longer rudimentary practice in reading extracts from stories assembled in a reader; it has taken on the form of reference reading in the library. Arithmetic, which at first made

a brave effort to maintain its place in the program, has gradually given place to a study of applications of number to practical problems of the home, the store, and the shop. Applications of this fuller type have rendered less and less satisfactory the reviews which used to be offered in the upper grades as the devices for keeping arithmetic in its place.

No one can study the changes which have been going on in the elementary program without realizing that there is being opened a place for social studies in the upper grades of the elementary school. Indeed, social studies come as a relief to the superintendent who is making out his school program, because if these new materials were not available it would be a serious problem to determine how profitably to fill the time of upper-grade pupils.

It should be noted that this statement of the natural tendency of the upper grades to adopt a social program is made with full recognition of the qualifications which must be entered in view of the lack of knowledge and interest on the part of teachers. It is not asserted that social studies are to find their way readily and easily into the curriculum. The obstacles are great, but the way is opening as a result of the natural evolution of schools.

Furthermore, it is not intended, by the statements that have been made, to limit social studies to the upper grades. There can be no doubt that there is an urgent and altogether legitimate demand that little children in the lower grades be introduced to social ideas. This fuller realization of the social studies movement is, however, likely to wait until the experiment of introducing it into the upper grades has advanced much further than it has at the present time.

The first conclusion which seems justified by our discussion is that social studies can at this time be most easily inserted into the elementary program in the seventh and eighth grades.

The second problem, that of preparing social science material in proper form for school use is not an easy problem to solve. The example of the natural sciences which have for some years been in process of experimenting with a similar problem is illuminating. At the beginning of the nature-study movement, some twenty-five years ago, the facts which were to be presented to pupils were

chosen from the mature natural sciences wholly without regard to the pupils' powers of comprehension. In short, the natural sciences did not at first pay attention to the psychology of the school child. In the second place, the facts were often presented in unsystematic order, being drawn now from the physical sciences, now from the biological sciences, and sometimes from ordinary experience. The result was a complete failure of the early nature-study movement.

From this failure it is possible to derive two principles which will be of great service to the social studies if they will heed the example of the natural sciences. The first of these principles can be formulated as follows: the selection of materials for instruction must be strictly in accordance with the capacities of pupils. The second is that there must be a clear enunciation of those scientific relations which will make the pupil aware of the difference between facts and systematic comprehension. Put in other words, these principles may be formulated negatively by saying that social studies and nature-study cannot be absorbed by pupils in the form in which they appear in mature science, nor can they be absorbed by pupils if they are mere unsystematic, miscellaneous conglomerations of supposedly interesting items.

These abstract statements can be made concrete as follows: Seventh and eighth-grade pupils are intensely interested in their own relations to society. They are interested in the tangible exhibitions of society at work in industry and in the conquest of nature. They are interested in persons and their doings. It is not opportune to try to carry pupils out of the range of their concrete thinking at this stage and to ask them to consider the details of governmental machinery. The structure of the federal government may be a matter for systematic thinking on the part of mature adults, but children want something much more vivid and personal and concrete.

Children of this age are on the threshold of adult life with its personal responsibilities and personal opportunities. If social studies are to appeal to them, there must be a formulation in terms appropriate to this outlook on personal adult life.

The second general principle stated in a foregoing paragraph is less likely to command instant acceptance than the first. Experience shows, however, beyond a possibility of doubt, that science will have to be systematic if it is to be a successful subject of instruction. It is not possible in view of the complexities of social life to set pupils wandering around among a miscellaneous collection of facts, leaving it to them to put these facts together in some coherent, understandable order.

This statement runs counter to what is being said these days in many quarters. We are being urged by some people to break down the whole structure of the school curriculum and to let pupils hunt up so-called 'projects' wherever they can find them. We are being told that if pupils carry through enough projects they will learn that the world is governed by systematic laws. They will discover for themselves what the race has been working out through long ages. The fallacy in such confidence in the efficacy of miscellaneous thinking is the fallacy of time. Perhaps children might rediscover science, but it is quite certain that they will not do so in a single life time, much less in a school life time. What children need, if they are to get in a short time what the race has evolved in a long time, is guidance in systematic thinking. They must have made clear to them the important relations around which they can group their experiences.

The argument of the foregoing paragraph is supported by the fact that every course of study which constitutes a part of the school curriculum has come to be a series of systematically coherent relations. The reason why arithmetic is a subject is that it singles out certain important types of relations and keeps children thinking about them. The examples which children are asked to solve in the course are opportunities to apply the systematic principles of arithmetic to various cases. The project is there, but it is a part of a systematic series of ideas.

There is one application of the general argument here set forth which must not be overlooked. The pupil cannot think systematically about social phenomena if the discussion of these phenomena is mixed up with all other kinds of matters. For example, it has been suggested that social studies are nothing but a branch of

history. Indeed, the historians are many of them convinced even to-day that social studies ought to be turned over to them. But history is organized around certain relations of sequence and national control which are not at all relevant to those relations of cooperative living which the social studies must emphasize. It is no criticism of history to say that it will not serve the purpose of training pupils in social science; it is merely a recognition of the fact that history has its own centers of systematic organization.

It has also been suggested that geography be made the vehicle for social studies. Here we find that the facts of ordinary school experience show the fallacy of expecting geography to solve the problem. Geography tends even now to pass over into the related sciences. The natural sciences of physics and biology take up the phenomena with which geography began, and the subdivisions of commercial and anthropological geography grow out of the demand for a more systematic study of groups of facts which ordinary geography cannot hold together in the upper grades. So long as geography confined itself in the lower grades to locational studies and general descriptions, the subject was characterized by an intelligible plan and clearly recognizable identity. If the attempt is made to have geography carry the burden of too many other types of systematic thinking, it will break up even more than it has now in the upper grades.

The experience of the schools in introducing nature-study ought to make everyone aware of the fact that the task to which the schools have set their hand of arranging the social sciences for school use is a difficult one. It is a task that cannot be pushed off by assigning it to the historians or the geographers or those who are unwilling to study the needs of pupils. The social studies must have a character of their own, and they must be suited to the maturity of pupils.

The third problem, that of converting and educating teachers, is one which must be explicitly understood and dealt with. If the normal schools could be persuaded to drop some of the rubbish which now clutters up their curricula and to put in a series of studies on present-day social conditions, they would render a signal service to the country. The normal schools are, however, very

much like the schools of the country in general, filled with teachers who are so ignorant of social problems that they think there are no such problems.

It is perfectly clear that before the normal schools or the elementary schools can get far in these matters they must enlist the services of people who are trained in the social sciences. These trained specialists must prepare the material. They must point out the leading principles around which thinking in this field must be centered. They must give us the examples which most concretely and vividly show how society works.

School teachers must take the systematic thinking of the specialists and must absorb it themselves and pass it on to their pupils. They must cooperate in finding illustrations near enough at hand to supplement that which is supplied by the specialists.

This means that there must be definitely organized cooperation on the part of school systems. It is not enough to announce the need in a school of social studies. That need must be keenly enough felt by the administration to bring about the allotment of time and energy to the development of the proper means of introducing it into the schools.

Because the social studies are new, they offer better than do any of the older school subjects an opportunity to secure a type of organization which is very much needed in the schools. There is a general need for the setting aside in every school system of a part of the time of the best teachers to prepare lessons to be administered, after they are prepared, by all the teachers. Superintendents ought to induce their boards of education to spend some money every year in the preparation of materials of instruction appropriate to the particular locality in which the system is situated. The new demand for social studies makes this need of the school more urgent than ever and at the same time easy to explain to a school board.

The writer once entertained the hope that the higher administrative officers of the school system, the principals and superintendents, would take a direct hand in preparing social science lessons. He saw the National Association of High-School Principals make two spasmodic efforts and lapse into the usual apathy

of the tired administrative officer. He confines his present suggestions, therefore, and his hopes for the salvation of the schools, to the cooperation of these administrators in finding some one besides themselves who can do the work.

The conclusions reached in the foregoing paragraphs are, then, in summary as follows:

1. Social studies can best be introduced at this time in the seventh grade and the grades immediately following.
2. Social studies should be concrete and vivid. They should deal with personal relations to such concrete problems as occupation and social cooperation.
3. The material for the social studies should be organized in a definite, scientific system around certain guiding principles.
4. This material should be prepared with the largest possible cooperation of trained specialists and a few selected teachers who are given time to perfect their work.

CHAPTER III

THE PROPOSAL OF THE COMMISSION OF THE ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE SCHOOLS OF BUSINESS

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At its meeting in May, 1922, The Association of Collegiate Schools of Business received a report from its Commission on the Correlation of Secondary and Collegiate Education. This Commission was made up of representatives of secondary-school work, labor, employers, and the Association itself. In this, its first report, it confined its attention to a discussion of Social Studies in Secondary Schools, with particular references to the 6 - 3 - 3 plan of school organization.

The list of the more important chapters of the report in itself indicates its scope. There are chapters on:

Social Studies in the Business Curriculum

The Previous Proposals Concerning Social Studies in Secondary Schools

The Actual Position of Social Studies in Secondary Schools

The Actual Position of Social Studies in Secondary Commercial Curricula

What The Collegiate Schools of Business Do By Way of Correlation

The Administrative Reorganization of Our School System

The Proposal of the Commission

For purposes of this article, the most significant part of the Commission's work is to be found in its final chapter setting forth the proposal of the Commission. The material that follows is accordingly taken almost verbatim from that report.

It will facilitate study and criticism of this proposal to set forth at this time the considerations which were in mind. Briefly stated, these considerations were as follows:

1. The organization of social studies in the public schools should be in terms of the purpose of introducing those studies,

Their purpose is that of giving our youth an awareness of what it means to live together in organized society, an appreciation of how we do live together, and an understanding of the conditions precedent to living together well, to the end that our youth may develop those ideals, abilities, and tendencies to act which are essential to effective participation in our society. The range of this statement is very broad. For example: the contribution of knowledge and physical environment to our social living is quite as worthy of attention as are the principles of economics or government. Parenthetically, it may be noted that, "awareness," "appreciation," and "understanding" come only when descriptive facts are presented in their relationships.

2. The question should not be "how to put the social studies into our curricula" but "how to organize our curricula around social objectives." This Commission believes that the social studies should be the backbone of secondary education, with which all other studies and school activities should be closely articulated according to their contributions to the social objectives of education. Since each individual must be a citizen and as such must participate in group action, the social studies should be represented in each grade of education, and every pupil should have at least one unit of social study in every year of the school course. As for the specific junior-high-school courses mentioned below, the commission does not attempt to decide whether they should be unit courses or half-unit courses. Possibly they should be so drawn as to make either arrangement possible according to local needs and resources.

It is essential that we free our minds from any such issue as the claims of history vs. those of economics vs. those of government vs. those of sociology. Those claims will largely disappear in any vital discussion of the contribution of social studies to our social living. These branches of social study are not separable, save for the purpose of emphasizing some particular point of view on social living.

3. The social studies should be directed toward an understanding of the physiology rather than the pathology of social living. This does not mean that pathology is to be disregarded, but it does mean that it should not occupy the center of attention. Such a

position does not reject the "problem method" of instruction. That method should be quite freely used; but it should be directed toward understanding the anatomy and physiology of society.

The center of attention should be our social living in this country and how it came to be what it is. Just what should occupy this center of attention is the essence of the problem. There will presumably be put in the background of attention (but it is still in the field of attention) some material now occupying a prominent place in our social studies. Such background material should be presented (*a*) in required courses only to the extent to which it contributes significantly to the understanding of our social living and (*b*) in elective courses.

4. Any program of social studies which hopes to be successful must be drawn with consideration for vocational needs. This suggests no conflict of interests. Men *work* together in organized society. Vocational training will be greatly improved—even as a "money-making" matter for the individual—by the right kind of social study backbone. Specialized studies should not be allowed to supplant fundamental courses.

5. The program of social studies which is drawn with recognition of the great losses in our student constituency in certain years seems likely to accomplish the greatest good for the greatest number, provided this does not mean too great weakening of basic training. It will be found that the program later proposed recognizes that students drop out every year, but it does not neglect to provide for continuity and progression.

6. The reorganization which is now in process in our educational system (which opens up the seventh and eighth grades for the introduction of new material) justifies a somewhat daring attempt to think through, as a coherent whole, our presentation of secondary-social studies, without too much regard for traditional claims or customary practices. More specifically, there is here an opportunity to introduce *social study* rather than specialized branches of social studies.

7. An effective program of social studies will be organized in terms of the psychology of learning. The average child of the seventh grade is at least beginning to have a social consciousness,

His mind is reaching out to understand his relationships to other people and to society as a whole. The fact that he is not aware of his developing attitude does not interfere with making use of this interest.

The unfolding of the social studies should not be too rapid to allow the student to build up an apperceptive basis for his thinking. Accordingly, the program suggested passes (1) from a seventh-grade discussion of *types* of social organization and some *conditioning factors* of the types, (2) through an eighth-grade survey of the *development and practices* of our modern social organization, (3) to a ninth-grade discussion of *principles* of social organization, and (4) ultimately to a senior-high-school discussion of social science material in somewhat more specialized terms. Such a development will contribute markedly to "giving our youth an awareness of what it means to live together in organized society, an appreciation of how we do live together, and an understanding of the conditions precedent to living together well, to the end that our youth may develop those ideals, abilities, and tendencies to act which are essential to effective participation in our society."

8. The program of social studies which is drawn in such a way as to minimize administrative difficulties, will, other things being equal, be most rapidly introduced.

So much for background considerations. As a statement prefatory to the junior-high-school proposal, it is assumed that in the first six grades students have acquired certain tools and methods of study, and that they have been given a body of material in history, community civics, and geography which will serve as a foundation for the studies suggested below. It is recognized that the successful introduction of such a junior-high-school program as is sketched below would in time influence rather profoundly the work of the first six grades. But that is another story.

A SUMMARY VIEW OF THE PROPOSED JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL PROGRAM IN SOCIAL STUDIES

It will facilitate later discussion to present at this point, without explanation or supporting argument, a summary view of the pro-

posal as a whole. This summary view will present, in specific terms, only the work in social studies.

Seventh Grade

1. Geographic bases of (physical environment with relation to) United States development
2. Social science survey (types of social organization)
 - a) Simple industry and simple society
 - b) The transforming effects of scientific knowledge
3. Other studies, correlated so far as may be practicable with the social-study material

Eighth Grade

1. The opening of the world to the use of man
2. Vocational survey, the individual's place in our social organization (presented in functional terms so that it may contribute to an understanding of *our* type of social organization)
3. Other studies, correlated so far as may be practicable with the social-study material

Ninth Grade

1. The history of the United States (presented with "citizenship material" occupying the center of attention)
2. Principles of social organization (economic, political, social)
3. Other studies, correlated so far as may be practicable with the social-study material
4. A general survey of business administration, elective

A DETAILED VIEW OF THE WORK OF THE SEVENTH GRADE

The work of this grade sets out consciously to "give our youth an awareness of what it means to live together in organized society, an appreciation of how we do live together, and an understanding of the conditions precedent to living together well." Its emphasis is upon the first and third of these propositions, without at all neglecting the second. The survey of types of social organizations in simple societies emphasizes the first; the survey of the transforming effects of scientific knowl-

edge, the work in geography, and the work in science emphasize the third. Of course, there is no intention of making a sharp differentiation in treatment.

The foregoing statement of purpose may be stated differently.

The work of this grade seeks to sweep together, into a somewhat organic whole, the social-study work of the first six grades, and to take a further step in *generalized* thinking in the field.

The work in geographic bases of (physical environment with relation to) United States development is designed:

1. To bring into an organic whole the preceding work in history, civics, and geography in such a way as to
2. Show the importance of physical environment with respect to conditions precedent to living together well and to
3. Prepare the way, in terms of principles, for the work of the next two grades and to
4. Give the student who can go no farther a significant contribution to his "appreciation of how we live together and understanding of the conditions precedent to living together well."

The social-science survey of types of social organization is designed:

1. To bring into an organic whole the preceding work in history, civics, and geography in such a way as to prepare the way, in terms of principles, for the work of the next two grades.
2. To lay a comparative basis for the later more careful survey of the evolutionary development of the functioning social structure.
3. To give the student who can go no farther a significant contribution to his "awareness of what it means to live together in organized society, appreciation of how we do live together and understanding of the conditions precedent to living together well."

The suggested method of presenting this social science survey material is as follows:

1. Present a series of snapshots of simple types of social organization, such as

The life of Neolithic man
The life of the Iroquois
The life of nomads
Life in a medieval manor
Life in a medieval town
Life in a modern secluded mountain district
Life in a frontier mining camp

in which the student can see how such matters as education, religion, health, social control, economic activities, etc. (these are only samples) were cared for and can begin to see wherein our ways of caring for such matters are different, if different.

This comparative study should be directed toward bringing out certain concepts, of which the following may be taken as samples (they are only samples): self sufficiency vs. interdependence; customary vs. competitive methods; non-exchange vs. exchange society; non-industrial vs. industrial society; the shifting emphasis in social control; the modern co-operation of specialists—all with the idea of leading the student to "generalize" his knowledge and with the further idea of preparing him for the study of "principles" in the ninth grade.

2. The latter part of the survey is to be devoted to showing the contribution of knowledge "to our living together well" and how that reacts upon the type of social organization. This should be no mere threadbare account of the industrial revolution; it should be an account of the transforming effects of science on our ways of living together. Notice that the way has been prepared by the student's work in science, if science is offered in this grade.

A DETAILED VIEW OF THE WORK OF THE EIGHTH GRADE

There is presumably no need for a detailed statement of the general purpose of the work of this grade. It is obvious that, in addition to caring properly for those who must drop out at the

end of the year, this grade must (*a*) begin to give many students a rational basis for selection of vocations and (*b*) continue the preparation for the more generalized social study of the ninth grade.

The work in "The Opening of the World to the Use of Man" is designed:

1. To knit together and to build upon the social-science survey and geography of the preceding grade in such a way that the student will get as a part of his mental machinery—as tools of which he will make *conscious* use—concepts of change, development, and continuity
2. In respect to factual background, to give the student some appreciation of the long, hard trail the human race has climbed; to let him see the emergence of Western civilization, its spread over the earth and its contacts with other civilizations
3. To give the student the "world-background" against which the history of his own country (ninth grade) may be seen in perspective and to make him "*cosmopolitan*" and "*international*" in a wholesome sense of those words.

The vocational survey (the individual's place in our social organization) is designed:

1. To give the student an opportunity (upon which their experience has caused so many school men to insist) to think through *in specific terms* his own possible contribution to social living. Whether this results in his actually "choosing a vocation" matters little, if at all. Out of it, he should get a clearer notion of the qualities making for individual success in the process of social living.
2. To give this, however, not as a set of maxims and preachments and not as a set of "job analyses" but as a survey of the activities (emphasizing here economic activities without neglecting political and social considerations) which are carried on in *our* type of social organization, and
3. To do this in such a way that he will glimpse *an economic organization* in which activities are *in terms of social pur-*

poses. By way of illustration. The student who sees the "undifferentiated" medieval trader split up as time goes on into transporter, insurer, financier, seller, etc., will have a different conception of the work of railroads, insurance companies, banks, etc., from the one he would have had after an unconnected "study of occupations." In other words, the vocational survey is designed to give the student a more thorough and specific conception of our social organization as it actually operates in our "living together."

A DETAILED VIEW OF THE WORK OF THE NINTH GRADE

Here, also, a detailed statement of general purpose may be omitted. Looking back over the junior-high-school curriculum, this year's work seeks to knit together the preceding work (*a*) in terms of *principles*, and (*b*) in terms of their application to citizenship in our own country. Looking forward to the work of the senior high school, this year's work seeks to pave the way for the more specialized presentation of the social sciences.

The work in the history of the United States (presented with "citizenship material" occupying the center of attention) is self-explanatory, if it be kept in mind that the ideal is that of bringing the social-science work of the preceding grades, as well as that of this ninth grade, to a focus in this account of the development of our own social living together. Such a statement indicates the kind of history which is to be presented.

The work in principles of social organization assumes that the student has been given sufficient factual background and has attained a sufficient maturity to enable him to view our social living in terms of *principles* rather than in terms of *types* or of *practices*. It asks the student to do, as a conscious matter, a most fundamental thing, namely, *seek relationships on a scale which will give him an organic view of our social living*. He is asked (so far as he may now be able) to formulate *consciously* the principles of social living which should guide him in later years. It is to be noticed in passing that no such opportunity now exists in any stage of our school curriculum. It is con-

ceivable that the first draft of this will have to be in three parts (1) economic organization, (2) political organization, (3) social organization not otherwise handled. But it is hoped and expected that it may be done not as three parts but as one unified whole.

While it forms no part of the basic material, the elective work (for those who plan to take the so-called commercial course) in Survey of Business Administration deserves passing notice. It should dovetail both with the vocational survey of the preceding grade and with the work in Principles of Social Organization of this grade. It should provide the sadly lacking unifying element in the present miscellaneous collection of "commercial courses." It should be of distinct vocational service for the student who can go no farther and it should pave the way for a higher standard of "commercial courses" in the senior high school.

A HINT OF THE PROGRAM OF THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

The foregoing sets forth the material on which the Commission particularly covets discussion, but it is worth while to suggest something of its bearing upon the senior-high-school program. It is assumed that in each year of the senior high school, some social-study work will be required and that the work will be presented in more specialized (scientific?) form than it was in the earlier grades.

The following statement gives merely a suggestion of possible courses *in the field of economics and business*. Perhaps it contains hints for other fields of study. The Commission believes that our larger high schools, at least, might in time offer considerable choice of courses in the fields that we now designate as political science, history, psychology, and sociology.

1. The financial organization of society and the manager's administration of finance.
2. The market organization of society and the manager's administration of the market.

3. The position of the worker in our society and personnel administration.
4. The evolution of our economic society. (Note that this is vastly more than a "History of Commerce" and vastly more than the typical "Industrial History.")
5. Accounting (not merely as bookkeeping but also as an instrument of control in the hands of the executive).
6. Business Law (as a manifestation of social control of business activity and as a facilitating aid of business).
7. Such *technical* courses as may be expedient. An illustration is shorthand and typewriting.
8. Theories of value and distribution.
9. Government and industry.

THE PROGRAM OF THE FOUR-YEAR-HIGH SCHOOL

Whatever may be in store for the future, there can be no doubt that the 8-4 form of organization of our public schools is to-day the dominant one, and the Commission quite recognizes that it might well have worked out in detail a four-year program of secondary-social studies. The reasons why it did not do so have been given in its introductory statement. It believes that just at this juncture, its best service can be rendered by focusing attention upon the 6-3-3 plan. It points out in passing, however, that from the social-study material outlined in this report there is much material (a full four-year schedule, indeed) which the four-year-high-school administrator will find available for his use. Just what he will choose to use will of course vary with varying local conditions.

As a means of making the program suggested above readily comparable with other proposals which have been made a comparative statement of three proposals is presented.

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THREE PROPOSALS

	Seventh Grade	Eighth Grade	Ninth Grade	Tenth Grade	Eleventh Grade	Twelfth Grade
1. Committee on History and Education for Citizenship, American Historical Association	The world before 1607 and the beginnings of American history viewed in relation to the evolution and expanding influence of Latin-American Republics	The world since 1607 viewed in relation to the evolution and expanding influence of the United States	Community and national activities or Progress of civilization to about 1650	Progress toward world democracy since 1650 (mainly European history emphasizing political aspects but seeking explanations in economic changes, inventions, disorders, social regroupings, leadership, and thought)	United States history during national period studied in same spirit as that indicated for tenth grade	Social, economic, and political principles and problems
2. 1916 Report of Sub-committee on Social Studies in Secondary Education	Geography in European history ($\frac{1}{2}$ yr.), sequence ($\frac{1}{2}$ yr.), Civics ($\frac{1}{2}$ yr.), parallel ($\frac{1}{2}$ yr.)	Civics as phase of National Education	American history in sequence ($\frac{1}{2}$ yr.), or parallel ($\frac{1}{2}$ yr.)	Civics taught incidentally to above	European history to approximately the end of the seventh century (1 yr., including ancient, oriental, English, and American exploration) or History in connection with above	European history to approximately the end of the seventh century (1 yr., including ancient, oriental, English, and American exploration)
3. Commission of the Association of Collegiate Schools of Business and Committee of American Economic Association	Geography, fault incidentally to history Civics as cited above	Geography, fault incidentally to history Civics as cited above	Geographic bases of environment in relation to United States development	Opening of the world to the use of man	The history of the individual in our society (vocational survey)	The presentation of social studies in more specialized form and more in accord with the traditional divisions of the social sciences than was suggested for the earlier grades. Availability of material, local organization of curriculum, and vocational needs will all play a part in determining the selection of courses.

CHAPTER IV

HOW THE CURRENT COURSES IN HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY, AND CIVICS CAME TO BE WHAT THEY ARE

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WHAT THE COURSES CONSISTED OF, 1892-1912

For nearly ten years there has been an insistent demand that school courses in history, geography, and civics be so organized that they will make a more definite contribution to those activities of pupils that train for effective citizenship.

Between 1892 and 1912 reports of committees, chiefly those of the American Historical Association, and the formulation of entrance requirements by our colleges and universities, brought about "programs" and curricula in history and civics that nearly all American schools adopted. American high schools increasingly became preparatory schools for our colleges. When the higher institutions of learning demanded that students desiring a college education should show evidence of scholarship in their high-school courses, the secondary schools were forced to devote much of their instruction to subject matter that would meet these conditions.

In the field of history college professors were "alarmed" at the little knowledge of their subject that high-school pupils, entering their classes for advanced study, exhibited. Hence, they met together as "committees" and outlined courses that elementary and secondary schools should follow. They believed that these measures would remedy the defect. In this period, then, American schools came to teach courses outlined by the college specialists as follows: in the seventh, eighth and twelfth years, United States history; in the ninth year, Ancient history; in the tenth year, Medieval and Modern history; and in the eleventh year, English history.

History, being the older and better organized subject, came to occupy a prominent place among the social subjects thought to

have preparatory value in citizenship training. Civics, up to a short time ago, was largely a study of the United States Constitution. Historians, giving considerable space in their textbooks to the Constitutional Convention, asserted that civics was best taught as an integral part of history. So committee reports set aside a part of the eighth and twelfth-grade history courses for civics. If civics received any independent instruction, it was usually only as an elective course. Geography, except for elective courses in commercial geography, was an elementary-school subject. Its development was not then of interest to the college teachers of history. Thus, the growth of this subject came about, apart from suggestions of committees of university specialists. Textbooks by students of geography—Frye, Dodge, Tarr, McMurry, McFarlane, Atwood, Smith, and others—gradually produced the human-physical type of geography that we know to-day.

Reading courses with emphasis upon a detailed mastery of countless facts in a textbook summarized citizenship training in history, geography, and civics up to about a decade ago.

A BROADER CONCEPT OF WHAT IS REQUIRED FOR CITIZENSHIP TRAINING HAS DEVELOPED IN RECENT YEARS

Since about 1912 or 1913 these traditional courses in history, geography, and civics have been reorganized and broadened into a group of school courses that are now known as the social sciences.

To-day the situation is briefly this: instead of school courses being controlled by the specialists in history, we find other specialists in economics, civics, and sociology demanding and receiving their "place in the sun." Moreover, we find school teachers, administrators, and curriculum-workers in Schools of Education drawing up social science courses independent of, or with the advice of, the specialists in subject matter.¹ Still these last-named curriculum-makers recognize the necessity of consulting the specialists in the various social sciences; their scholarship and training

¹Examples of this tendency are found in the activity of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, and of a sub-committee on social studies of a commission of the National Education Association authorized to suggest revisions of high-school curricula.

certainly demand that their advice be sought and carefully considered.

The efforts of these new workers have produced much broader and more comprehensive courses in the social sciences for junior and senior high schools. The chief changes to be noted are:

(1) Instead of an analysis of the Constitution or a "dissecting" of the machinery of our government, a pupil now studies community activities and what the government does for the people.

(2) Ancient and Medieval history are coming to be taught in a one-year course, called Early European history; rather than as two independent courses embracing two years of study.²

(3) There is a decided increase in the number of courses offered other than history and the old type civics—such as economics, sociology, current events, vocational civics, social problems, and "Problems of Democracy."

(4) More time is now devoted to the so-called extra-curricular activities—factors in school life which supplement existing reading courses in history, civics, geography, economics, and sociology. A question blank investigation indicates a decided interest in, and provision for, such activities as Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Junior Red Cross, Thrift Clubs, Debating Clubs, Military training, Mock Elections, Excursions, Dramatizations, Student Councils, and school government. In many schools these are organized and recognized by school faculties, because it is felt they provide better opportunities for the pupils to participate in community life.

THE AIMS CLAIMED FOR THE STUDY OF HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY, AND CIVICS ARE ONE HUNDRED YEARS OLD. ARE THEY SUBSTANTIATED BY THOSE SUBJECTS AS ORGANIZED AND TAUGHT?

During this period, when such courses are undergoing many changes, one should inquire what outcomes are to be expected from the teaching of the social subjects. Should there not be definite reasons for teaching each subject in our curriculum and definite outcomes to be sought? Can we not insist that these courses justify themselves by giving us some objective evidence that their teaching produces the values and outcomes claimed?

A study of the history of how these subjects have been taught for over one hundred years shows how little progress we have made

²Some historians are even recommending that ancient, medieval, and modern history be taught in one year instead of devoting three years of study to these subjects, as recommended since 1899.

in proving their values. They were first taught in the early 1800's for practically the same reasons that they are taught to-day. These may be grouped as follows: (1) Training for citizenship,³ (2) Inculcation of patriotism, (3) Disciplinary values in training the memory, judgment, imagination, and other "powers," (4) Leisure.

In our early history, as well as in recent times, citizens interested in public education believed that pupils must be "trained" to take their places as citizens. They should be taught to revere our institutions and heroes. Love for their country should be stimulated. Their minds should be "disciplined" by a rigorous method of study. Lastly pupils should study history and civics in order that in their leisure they could further "improve" themselves.

The history of American education contains several examples of how the nation has turned to school courses in history, geography, and civics at different times to accomplish something that the people, sometimes a majority and sometimes a minority, thought essential to progress. Up through the early 1800's our government was aristocratic.⁴ The suffrage was restricted to those holding property; hence the ballot was denied to a large percentage of the people. But the growth of the West, 1800-1860, and the creation of new states where land was virtually "free," abolished property qualifications for voting. As each of these new Western territories was admitted as a state, with a constitution framed and adopted by pioneers in communities where everyone was on an equal footing with his neighbor, the ballot was given to every male citizen. Also in the older and better developed eastern states, universal male suffrage was achieved early in the nineteenth century.

One of the first things that these newly enfranchised people did was to battle for free, tax-supported public schools. Obtaining this object, they naturally turned to reforming and broadening the curricula of existing schools. They found little subject matter that would instruct the youth of the country in the duties and responsibilities of citizenship. Hence they demanded that such

³This phase has never been fully explained.

⁴Cubberley, E. P.: *Public Education in the United States*, pages 108-112. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1919.

courses be organized and taught. The school course of the times was almost entirely the "3 R's"—reading, writing, and arithmetic. Famous textbooks of the early period were: Noah Webster's blue-backed *American Spelling Book*, Caleb Bingham's *Columbian Orator*, Dilworth's *Schoolmaster's Assistant*, and Coburn's *First Lessons in Arithmetic on the Plan of Pestalozzi*.

Public demands for the teaching of history, geography, and civics are evident in several periods of our history. In general, this interest of the public is reflected only when certain groups believe that our governmental institutions are threatened or when some great crisis causes citizens to inquire into the existing situation. At other times most of us are too busy to inquire into, or be concerned about, the condition of our government or to find out whether the rising generation is receiving the "necessary" training in citizenship.

The first civics book, published in 1797—a little political catechism by one Elhanan Winchester—illustrates this in our early history. Winchester was a New England Federalist and was greatly "frightened" at the rising tide of Jeffersonian democracy, exhibited first in the last decade of the eighteenth century. His remedy was to teach pupils "sound" principles of government. Again, about 1830, a new type of democracy appeared. Jackson and his adherents representing the new section, a virile western democracy, came into control of the national government. Again we find textbooks appearing by "guardians of the old order," aiming to counteract this democratic movement by instructing pupils about the Constitution. Thus they thought that "reverence" for existing institutions would be strengthened.

The Civil War also emphasized the citizenship and patriotic values of history, geography, and civics. With the Union preserved and the national government paramount, the interest of our people in these subjects naturally increased. This is evident in the tone of the textbooks that appeared in this period.⁵

The last inquiries into the values of citizenship and patriotism, while beginning about ten years ago, were enormously increased during the Great War. War-issues courses, the attention paid to

⁵See Barnes' *Brief History of the United States*, page vi.

war activities in the schools, the participation of schoolmen and women in helping win the war, and Americanization work, all contributed to revive these values. This description of the reasons why history, civics, and geography came to be taught helps to explain how the current courses came to be what they are.

HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY, AND CIVICS WERE DEFINITELY ORGANIZED COURSES BEFORE 1860

These courses were well established in our schools prior to the Civil War. The history that was taught was American history in the upper elementary grades and in the academies; in the latter we also find General history, English history, Roman Antiquities, Greek Antiquities, and some State history.⁶ Civics was chiefly a study of the state and of the national Constitution. It was taught in the secondary schools of the time, the academies; usually as a part of United States History.⁷ Geography during this period was taught as an elementary-school subject.⁸

That these courses were firmly fixed in our curriculum before the Civil War is shown by the following evidence: first, the publication of many textbooks indicates that history was studied. The textbook determined what was taught in that period, just as school texts to-day pretty well represent the content of history courses. Thus when one finds that before 1860 there were 360 different histories published,⁹ one may conclude that there must have been well-organized history courses prior to 1860. The reports of the period testify still further as to the character of these courses. While detailed lists of texts for civics and geography have not been compiled, the existence to-day of about a dozen civics texts of the

⁶Russell, W. F.: *The Early Teaching of History in the Secondary Schools of New York and Massachusetts*. McKinley Publishing Company, Philadelphia, 1915.

⁷Dawson, E.: "The beginnings of political education." *The Historical Outlook*, vol. 9, page 439.

⁸Holtz, F. L.: *Principles and Methods of the Teaching of Geography*. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1921 and Cubberley, E. P.: *Public Education in the United States*. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1919.

⁹Russell and Jaquith added to Henry Barnard's earlier compilation and Russell reports in his monograph; 107 United States Histories, 114 General Histories, 78 Ancient Histories, 28 English Histories, and 33 miscellaneous Histories.

early period¹⁰ and some eight or ten geographies published before 1860 would lead one to conclude that these subjects were also studied.

The title pages of these early texts tell something of their characteristics. A notable history of the period was C. A. Goodrich's *History of the United States on a Plan Adapted to the Capacity of Youth and Designed to Aid the Memory by Systematic Arrangement and Interesting Associations*. This book ran through fifty-six editions and is said to have sold over 500,000 copies. Other histories with equally long titles and similar in style and content were written by Noah Webster (the greatest textbook writer of his time), S. G. Goodrich (the famous Peter Parley), and Emma Willard (a prominent leader in the movement for the training of teachers).

Well-known civics books of the period, besides Winchester's early political catechism referred to earlier,¹¹ are those written by A. W. Young, E. D. Mansfield, J. B. Shurtleff, and J. B. Burleigh. Young's text is entitled, *Introduction to the Science of Government and Compend of Constitutional and Civil Jurisprudence, Comprehending a General View of the Government of the United States and of the Government of the State of New York, together with the most Important Provisions of the Constitutions of the Several States; adapted to Purposes of Instruction in Families, and Schools*. Young's title indicates the emphasis placed upon the study of the constitution and serves to show the tendency to acquaint not only the pupils of the times but the citizens themselves with their government.¹² Dawson, an authority on early civics textbooks, says that Young's book was re-edited as late as 1901, and "seems still to be taught in the schools."

Before 1860, among the geographies that were used were those written by Jedidiah Morse, Caleb Bingham, S. G. Goodrich, Daniel Adams, Jacob Willetts, William Woodbridge, and Sidney Morse,

¹⁰Dawson, by his description of these early civics texts, rather effectively disproves a current impression that civics was not taught "until some years after the middle of the nineteenth century." See article on "Civics" in Monroe's *Cyclopedia of Education*, for this last statement.

¹¹The full title of this early civics is *A Plain Political Catechism Intended for the Use of Schools in the United States of America, wherein the great Principles of Liberty and of the Federal Constitution are laid down and explained by way of Question and Answer, made level to the lowest capacities*.

¹²In many of these early texts one finds the phrase: "intended for the use of families."

son of Jedidiah Morse. Geography came into the curriculum early; the first edition of the most commonly used geography of this period—that of Jedidiah Morse—was published in 1774. Part of its title page runs as follows:

"Geography Made Easy, Being a Short But Comprehensive System of that Very Useful and Agreeable Science. Exhibiting in an easy and concise View, the Figures, Motions, Distances and Magnitudes of the heavenly Bodies:—A general description of the Earth considered as a Planet; with its grand Divisions into Land and Water, Continents, Oceans, Islands, etc.—The Situation, Boundaries and Extent of the several Empires, Kingdoms, and States, together with an Account of their Climate, Soil, Productions and commerce:—The Number, Genius and general Character of the Inhabitants:—Their Religion, Government and History—Calculated particularly for the Use and Improvements of Schools in the United States."¹³

Second, a few references to state laws requiring history, geography, and civics are also found and indicate still more the insistence of the people that these subjects be taught. Geography was required by law in Massachusetts in 1826 and the history of United States in 1827. (The latter was one of the subjects of this state's famous high-school law of 1827.) Vermont also in 1827 added history and geography to the courses in its curriculum. Cubberley says, "New England people, moving westward into the North-West territory, carried these school requirements and the early textbooks with them, and the early schools set up in Ohio and Michigan were copies of those in the old home."¹⁴ Early programs of public and private schools also indicate the inclusion of history and geography between 1820 and 1860 as regular school subjects.¹⁵

¹³Quoted by Holtz, F. L.: *op. cit.*, page 322. (This is a reprint of the title page of Morse's "Geography made Easy," 1774. With permission, from the G. A. Plimpton collection.)

Russell, W. F., *op. cit.*, page 7, says, "In the early years of the nineteenth century such history as was taught was usually included with the classics, geography, or reading, particularly with the declamation work." Noah Webster says that he wrote a twenty-page account of the history of the United States at the request of Morse and this was included in his edition of that time (about 1787). An analysis of early histories reveals the same encyclopedic content as is found in the current histories (see tables in the appendix). The analysis of the early geographies and civics has not been completed as yet.

¹⁴Cubberley, E. P.: *op. cit.*, pages 223-227.

¹⁵Professor Henry Johnson told the writer recently that a Cleveland school program of the early 1800's shows four years of history required.

Third, school reports of this period show also the extent to which these courses were taught. In 1841-42 Horace Mann, Secretary of the then recently organized State Board of Education of Massachusetts, says in his annual report for that year that, of 304 towns investigated, he found 167 offered United States history and 62 offered "other" history, while 104 offered algebra, 16 Latin, and 181 Natural Philosophy. He also found 10,177 pupils studying the History of the United States; 2,571 were studying General History, while 2,333 were studying Algebra; 1,472, Bookkeeping; 858, Latin; 601, Rhetoric; 463, Geometry; 416, Human Physiology; 330, Logic; 249, Surveying; and 183, Greek.¹⁶

Similarly, in New York the *Report of the Regents of the University to the Senate of New York* for 1860 shows 164 academies offering United States history; 121, General history; 73, Roman Antiquities; 59, Greek Antiquities; and 46, Constitution, Government and Law. The number of textbooks in history and civics in use in New York, according to the *Seventy-Fourth Report of the Regents*, was as follows: 177 United States Histories, 163 General Histories, 75 texts on Roman Antiquities and 65 on Greek Antiquities and 45 books on the Constitution, Government, and Law. In 1825 only 38.8 percent of New York pupils attended schools where history and civics were taught; in 1860 this percentage had increased to 95.¹⁷

Are not the large number of textbooks in use, early State laws and programs and State reports, sufficient evidence that history, civics, and geography were important subjects of instruction in the schools of two states leading in education in this period before the Civil War? Scattered references to programs, laws, and reports of educators in other states, as well as to the establishment of teacher-training institutions (normal schools) where history and

¹⁶See Inglis, A. J.; *The Rise of the High School in Massachusetts*, Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 45, page 75, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, New York, 1911, and Massachusetts, *Sixth Annual Report to the Board of Education*, 1843, page 55.

Russell, W. F.; *op. cit.*, page 8, says these data are especially significant in that the law of 1827 was not in effect at the time. Civics, while not mentioned by Horace Mann, was probably taught in connection with the history of the United States; an examination of the textbooks shows this tendency.

¹⁷Russell, W. F.; *op. cit.*, pages 8-10.

geography were early required subjects of instruction¹⁸ and the beginnings of the tendency for colleges to demand history as an entrance requirement, further demonstrate the place of these subjects in the course of study of American schools prior to 1860.

There is some evidence that history came into the elementary schools in much the same way. For example, the report of the New York Superintendent of Schools for 1844 states that history was taught in most of the elementary schools of the entire state.¹⁹

Courses, both in the elementary and in the secondary schools, placed chief emphasis upon the mastery of countless facts in history and geography and civics. Nearly half of the content of the typical early history texts was devoted to military history; 83 percent, to political and military history. Scattered references—a few lines on a page—were all the opportunities afforded pupils to learn about fundamental social and economic topics and the life of the people in the past. Hundreds of names, references to scores of dates and places, are found in each of the texts.²⁰

Moreover the text was *memorized*; a common practice was to recite it like a declamation exercise. Few thought-provoking questions were asked and interpretation of the text material was rare.²¹ The most widely-used history of the period contains this direction to the teacher. "The general divisions should be first very thoroughly committed to memory" and then "that portion of the work which is in large type embracing the leading subjects of history should be committed to memory by the pupil."²²

Memorization was further illustrated by the practice of some authors to write history, geography, and civics books in the form of questions and answers—the catechetical method. An example of this type is as follows:²³

¹⁸*Ibid.*, page 12.

¹⁹Johnson, H.; *The Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools*, page 130. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1916. The early teaching of history in the elementary schools has not been investigated in any detail.

²⁰See tables in the appendix. These characteristics are evident also in current texts. It is their great defect.

²¹This method of study continued down to the late 1800's. Some evidence points to the fact that it is still followed in a few schools.

²²Goodrich, C. A.: *History of the United States* 1824 edition, page 3.

²³Bingham, C. A.: *Historical Grammar*, page 171.

- "Q. Did the Emperor Leopold live late in the century?"
 "A. He died in one thousand seven hundred and five, at the age of sixty-five."
 "Q. Who succeeded him?"
 "A. His son, Joseph, who died in the year one thousand seven hundred and eleven, at the age of thirty-three."
 "Q. To whom did the Empire afterwards devolve?"
 "A. To his brother, Charles VI, Archduke of Austria, and competitor with Philip V for the crown of Spain...."
 "Q. How long did he reign?"
 "A. To the year one thousand seven hundred and forty. He died at the age of fifty-five...."

Protests of a few teachers against these formal, "dry" methods of study are found in the educational journals and reports of the time. Gradually many of the progressive practices of to-day found favor. Review questions, suggestions for teaching by the topical method, the use of outlines, maps, and charts, collateral reading, and notebook work are discussed by a few teachers, and provision for many of these methods in later editions of the text would seem to indicate their increasing use.²⁴

Did these early histories, geographies, and civics acquaint pupils effectively with the activities, modes of living, and problems of their day? The answer is; *they did not.*

CHANGES IN SCHOOL COURSES IN HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY, AND CIVICS BETWEEN 1860 AND 1892

In this period United States history came to be chiefly an elementary-school subject, and General history a secondary-school subject.²⁵ The strong nationalistic pride, awakened after the Civil War by the preservation of the Union, made history and civics courses the media for the inculcation of patriotism and nationalism. Barnes' (J. D. Steele's) *Brief History of the United States* (1871), one of the most widely-used texts in the late 1800's says, (p. vi):

"This work is offered to American youth in the confident belief that as they study the wonderful history of their native land, they will learn to prize

²⁴Russell, W. F.: *op. cit.*, pages 27 and 28, traces this by a comparison of the editions of C. A. Goodrich's *History of the United States* appearing in 1824, 1829, 1833, 1834, 1852, and 1867.

²⁵*Report of the United States Bureau of Education*, 1888, page 404.

their birthright more highly and treasure it more carefully. Their patriotism must be kindled when they come to see how slowly, yet how gloriously, this tree of liberty has grown, what storms have wrenched its boughs, what sweat of toil and blood has moistened its roots, what eager eyes have watched every out-springing bud, what brave hearts have defended it, loving it even unto death. A heritage thus sanctified by the heroism and devotion of the fathers can but elicit the choicest care and tenderest love of the sons.”

A study of the constitution of the United States and of the state constitution continued to be the type of civics taught; usually in connection with the course in American history. Several states passed laws requiring this study. In the '80's, however, a new type of civics appeared. The words of Macy, Hinsdale, and others broadened out this analysis of the Constitution into a study of the machinery and forms of government.

Geography instruction also was reorganized in this period. The formal memorization of countless pages of description was vitalized to a considerable degree by the work of Guyot. He brought from Switzerland, his home, the ideas of his teachers, Ritter and Pestalozzi. He introduced the Pestalozzian principle of home geography. His first book (a primary geography) embodying these ideas was a little geographic reader “taking the child about his home locality first, then on journeys farther and farther from home. Physical, scenic, commercial, and historic units or types are chosen for these journeys.... A marked feature is that maps are not used before, but after a region has been thus traveled over with picture and text.”²⁶ Two other geographies, designed for the intermediate and upper grades, were also written by Guyot, with the collaboration of Mrs. Mary Howe Smith, of the then famous center of Pestalozzianism in America, the Oswego Normal School.

During this period history grew to be an important subject of study in the colleges. The “seminar” system of graduate study was transplanted from German universities; specialists in history were trained as graduate students; and soon “chairs” of history were established in our leading institutions of learning. Then followed a marked recognition of secondary-school history as a subject to be accepted for entrance to college. In 1895 an investiga-

²⁶Holtz, F. L.: *op. cit.*, page 335.

tion of 475 American colleges showed that 306 of them required for entrance American History; 127, General History; 112, Greek History; 116, Roman History; and 57, English History.²⁷

One other change remains to be noted. The American high school supplanted the old type academy in this period. In 1860 there were 321 high schools in the United States; in 1890 there were 2,526.²⁸ This extension of the opportunities of more children to go to high schools is highly significant. Democracy had established elementary education prior to the Civil War. The tremendous industrial developments of the nation after that war stimulated the rapid development of public high schools. Each high school attempted to prepare pupils for citizenship by offering them a wide choice of subjects of study. With the tremendous growth of our colleges since 1890 the high school, instead of primarily interesting itself in the preparation of pupils for life, has become chiefly a preparatory school for college. If one examines their courses of study to-day, one finds curricula clearly marked out as "College Preparatory" and "Technical Preparatory." These courses have been definitely designed for one purpose—to prepare for college.

When the colleges thus took control of high-school curricula by means of entrance requirements, a new method of making courses in history and civics was introduced.

COMMITTEE PROCEDURE BECOMES THE DOMINANT METHOD OF CURRICULUM MAKING, 1892-1922

Up to about 1892 our courses had largely been the work of teachers, clergymen, and professional textbook writers. In the latter category were such men as Noah Webster, S. G. Goodrich (Peter Parley), and Caleb Bingham. They wrote histories, geographies, and readers. It is said that Webster, while writing his monumental dictionary, lived on the income received from royalties on his "blue-backed" speller.

But beginning in the early nineties, as we have noted before, the college professors of history took control of the situation.

²⁷*Report of the United States Bureau of Education, 1896-97*, page 468.

²⁸In 1916 there were 12,003 high schools.

They found that high-school pupils entering college classes exhibited little knowledge of history. So they became interested in what should be taught in school history and indirectly in how history teaching, itself, in the schools could be improved.

In 1892 the National Education Association created the famous "Committee of Ten." This Committee was authorized to invite specialists in the various subjects—the classics, English, mathematics, science, history, and civics—to confer as to what school courses in their respective fields should be offered, and also to find out what the relation of each to the preparation for college should be. History, Civics, and Political Economy were "considered" by one of these sub-committees and a "program" of courses was recommended. (See Table I.)

This was the first of many "committees" of college specialists in history and civics²⁹ that have met and drawn up courses for elementary and high-school pupils. Certain conclusions concerning their methods of curriculum-making stand out sharply. The chief recommendations of these committees have been summarized in Table I. A study of this table, as well as of their detailed recommendations in their published reports (see Bibliography in the Appendix), make evident these conclusions:

(1) A "program" of history and civics courses was suggested for about every five years.

(2) An attempt was made to cover all fields of history; in some "programs" they made an attempt to grade and differentiate the type of content and instruction as between elementary and secondary-school courses.

(3) The school curriculum was dominated by college professors of history and government. If one excludes the only report written by school teachers, under the auspices of their national organization—the N. E. A. Report on the Social Studies, 1916—one finds the total composition of these committees to be: 32 Professors of History and Government (25, deducting those Professors who were on two different committees), 9 Superintendents and Principals, 3 Teachers in elementary or high schools (*for which schools the recommendations of these committees have been prepared*), and 2 Professors of Education. Isn't this significant when one considers that the suggestions and recommendations of the college

²⁹It does not appear that committee procedure was influential in the development of geography teaching since 1890; probably because geography was principally an elementary subject.

TABLE I SHOWS THE RECOMMENDATIONS OF

Name of Committee	Date	Membership of Committee ^a	Third Grade	Fourth Grade	Fifth Grade	Sixth Grade
Committee of Ten, N.E.A. ¹ A.H.A. ²	1892 1894	7 Professors 3 Principals			Biography and Mythology	Biography and Mythology
Committee of Seven, A.H.A.	1896 1899	6 Professors 1 Principal	Stories from the Iliad, etc.	Biography	Greek and Roman History	Medieval and Modern History
					Course suggested by one member of the	
Committee of Eight, A.H.A.	1905 1909	4 Professors 2 Supt's 2 Teachers	Heroes of Other Times	American History, Exploration to the Revolution	American History, Revolution to the Civil War	European Background
					Chiefly Biography Civics to be taught throughout	
Committee of Five, A.H.A.	1907 1912	4 Professors 1 Principal				
Social Studies Committee, N.E.A.	1914 1916	5 Professors 2 Supt's 10 Teachers 4 Unclassified				
Committee of Seven, A.P.A. ³	1911 1916	6 Professors 1 Supt.	Civic Virtues	A study of simple community activities Little textbook work		
Committee on History and Education for Citizenship, A.H.A. N.E.A.	1918 1921	6 Professors of History 1 Professor of Education 1 Supt. 1 Teacher	Discovery and Explorations	How Englishmen became Americans	The United States, 1783-1877	The United States, 1477 to date (1/2 year) Civics, 1/2 yr

¹National Education Association.²American Historical Association.³American Political Science Association.⁴Seven professors were on two different committees.

specialists have practically determined what has been taught and are still pretty largely determining the instruction of pupils in the great task of citizenship training?

We said that the Committee reports have materially shaped school courses in history and civics. Why? Because no sooner were these reports published than specialists in subject matter issued textbooks which elaborated, systematized, and organized the facts

THE VARIOUS COMMITTEES, 1892-1921.

Seventh Grade	Eighth Grade	Ninth Grade	Tenth Grade	Eleventh Grade	Twelfth Grade
American History and Civil Government	Greek and Roman History	French History	English History and Medieval and Modern History	American History	One special topic for intensive study
English History	American History	Ancient History	Medieval and Modern History	English History	American History and Civil Government

committee Grades 3-8

American History 1500-1789	American History 1789-1909 (Also some emphasis on Modern European History)				
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Grades 1-8

		Ancient History	English History	Modern European History	American History and Government
Geography $\frac{1}{2}$ yr.; European History $\frac{1}{2}$ yr.	American History $\frac{1}{2}$ yr. Civics $\frac{1}{2}$ yr.	Civics and Economic History	Ancient and Medieval history to 1700 (1 yr.) Modern European History ($\frac{1}{2}$ or 1 yr.) American History since the 17th century (1 or $\frac{1}{2}$ yr.) Problems of American Democracy (1 or $\frac{1}{2}$ year)	An advanced course in civics (Report does not state in which year it is to be offered, nor whether it is a one yr. or $\frac{1}{2}$ yr. course)	
Community Civics (emphasis upon functions but some treatment of the machinery of government.)					
American History in its World Setting				The Modern World	
The World before 1607	The World since 1607 in relation to World Influence of the United States	Community and Nat'l Activities (commercial geography) civics, social & economic history	Modern European History since 1850	American History during the Nat'l Period	Problems of Democracy

suggested for study by the Committee's syllabi.³⁰ As specialists they are in many ways qualified to write them. Scholarship, thorough training, a broad perspective of the social sciences, and a

³⁰Several important movements to improve elementary and secondary school teaching have failed or have been greatly handicapped because the exponents of the movement failed to write the details of their plan into textbooks; notably the Herbartian emphasis upon correlation, with history as the core of the school course. Some writers believe that the problem-project method is hindered to-day because teachers are not well trained enough to teach without textbooks. We probably must postulate textbooks as tools of instruction in our schools for some time to come.

teaching program with time for research and writing are important requisites for this task. But one thing—and that probably counter-balances the other qualifications—has defeated their efforts to write suitable textbooks; namely, *the fact that they have written them without contact with the elementary or high-school classes for which they are intended.*³¹ This criticism will be considered in detail later in the chapter.

It is commonly stated that the four "blocks" of history, recommended by the Committee of Seven in 1899 and again recommended by the Committee of Five in 1912 (both committees appointed by the American Historical Association), have comprised the course of study that four-year high schools until recently have followed. The Committee of Seven recommended Ancient History for the first year, Medieval and Modern History for the second year, English History for the third year, and American History and Civil Government for the fourth year. The Committee of Five simply changed the second and third-year courses, suggesting English History for the second, and Modern European History for the third year. A survey of 600 high schools in 1914 substantiates this statement; it shows almost all of them to be following this four-block scheme:³² 510 offered Ancient History; 456, European History; 348, English History; and 473, American History. Schools reporting grade placement in the four-year high schools in these subjects are enumerated in Table II.³³

TABLE II

	First Year Re- quired	Year Elective	Second Year Re- quired	Year Elective	Third Year Re- quired	Year Elective	Fourth Year Re- quired	Year Elective
Ancient History.....	198	93	133	59	18	5	3	1
European History.....	18	3	179	96	92	60	5	3
English History.....	31	11	39	22	103	114	11	13
American History.....	11	3	11	2	52	19	305	70

³¹If one wishes still further evidence that such recommendations have materially helped to determine the content of present school courses in history and civics, we suggest a comparison of the names of the members of these committees with the authors of history textbooks that have been and are still being *used widely in American elementary and secondary schools.* The writer finds several such names. But we do not criticise the fact that these specialists have written textbooks. We simply state it here again because their textbooks are the courses in history and civics in literally hundreds of American schools to day. Our criticism is that, in the main, these texts are not suited to the needs of children.

³²Only 40 disregarded the block system entirely.

³³Johnson, H.: *op. cit.*, page 150.

While we have no elaborate figures on the elementary-school courses in history, a comparison of the topics reported as taught in Grades I-VIII by Tryon³⁴ shows them to be very similar to those recommended by the Committee of Eight. Textbooks for these grades also follow rather closely the Report of this Committee.

While schools are teaching history by "blocks," or topics, this method of course-making has been based upon few valid criteria. Isn't one of the outstanding features of Table I the marked disagreement in the recommendations of these various committees? They seem even to ignore the crude results of past experience. Take any grade, for example the seventh, and what do you find? One committee proposes American history and civil government for this grade; another, English history; another, American history to 1789; another, geography and European history; another community civics; and still another, World history before 1607.

Why is there such a disagreement in grade placement? Because these men have never followed the steps of scientific procedure in curriculum-making. Their procedure has been chiefly this: group conferences of committee members, sending out of questions-blanks, a little personal investigation of what is taught in the schools, and correspondence with school administrators and teachers in which suggestions are requested. In no case have they written a course and taught it themselves under carefully controlled conditions, observing the teaching of it, measuring the results of its teaching by objective tests,³⁵ and comparing it with other types of courses, finally revising it once, twice or three times

³⁴Tryon, R. M.: "Materials, Methods and Administration of History Study in the Elementary Schools of the United States." *Indiana University Studies*, No. 17.

³⁵Practically the only test results that historians furnish school people are negative ones—the high percentage of failures in history and civics of high-school pupils taking college entrance examinations—tests written by these specialists. The report of the Secretary of the College Entrance Board for 1920 shows that 63.8 percent of candidates taking the college entrance examination in Ancient History failed to pass and that 51.8 percent failed in American history (*i.e.*, failed to make the passing grade of 60). In 1921 and 1922 there has been a marked decrease in failures (see page 42 of the Annual Report of the Secretary for 1922). The report does not give the explanation for this decrease. Bell and McCullom report (*Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. 8, page 284) similar low test results. Thirty-three percent of the facts called for were retained by about 650 high-school pupils and sixteen percent by 550 pupils in Grades 6-8.

in the light of what one, two, or three years of actual classroom teaching shows to be suitable material for each grade. If you read carefully the curriculum investigations now under way described in other chapters of this *Yearbook*, and compare these methods with those of the Committees as written in their reports, you will note to what a marked degree the specialists setting up curricula for elementary and high-school pupils in history and civics have failed to follow the relatively objective methods of *investigation of what shall be taught*. The method of investigation demands not only that hypotheses be established,³⁶ but also that the other steps be taken; namely, an inquiry into children's needs both as pupils and as adults; and a search for subject matter that will meet these objectively determined needs. Finally, it demands that careful measurements of the results of teaching such proposed courses be made.³⁷

AMERICAN SCHOOLS ARE NOW TEACHING SOCIAL SCIENCES—A BROADER CONCEPTION APPEARS OF WHAT CITIZENSHIP TRAINING IS

Does not the evidence presented thus far indicate that up to about 1912 to 1914 history occupied the dominant place among those subjects commonly thought of as contributing to the preparation of pupils for citizenship? While, as we have pointed out, certain types of civics and even economies were taught, it was rare to find them offered as *independent* courses. Again and again the historian insisted that such subjects could be best taught in connection with history. The inclusion by the historians of more political history to provide for *civic* instruction and an equal increase of economic topics like banking, manufacturing, agriculture, and transportation in history texts to provide for *economics*, show that they were aware of the struggles of these new social sciences for a place in the curriculum. They realized that if they were to

³⁶All committee reports abound with theories and proposals, but unverified hypotheses are of little value. They are the first steps, but not the final ones.

³⁷For a detailed criticism and evaluation of committee procedure, see Rugg, H. O.: "Needed changes in the Committee Procedure of Reconstructing the Social Studies." *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 31, pages 688-702.

combat these courses, their texts must include much more of this type of subject matter.³⁸

Several movements led by those interested in the other social sciences as well as by students of education explain to a large extent the fact that to-day one hears about the teaching of the social studies rather than the teaching of history.³⁹ What conditions brought about these new types of curricula? To answer this question one must go back fifty years to the origin of another social science, sociology, the study of society in its broader aspects. In 1859, Herbert Spencer, a great English educator, published an epoch-making essay on the subject of the curriculum. It was entitled: "What Knowledge is of Most Worth?" In this essay he listed five kinds of material that a child should study in order to be ready for complete living: "1. Those activities which directly minister to self-preservation" (health); "2. Those activities which, by securing the necessities of life, indirectly minister to self-preservation" (vocational efficiency); "3. Those activities which have for their end the rearing and discipline of offspring" (preparation for parenthood); "4. Those activities which are involved in the maintenance of proper social and political relations" (*citizenship training*); "5. Those miscellaneous activities which make up the leisure part of life" (preparation for wise use of leisure).⁴⁰

To provide for No. 4, training for citizenship, he pleads for a course which he calls "descriptive sociology." Its subject matter is to be drawn from the broad materials of history, economics, political science, sociology, psychology, and anthropology. The curriculum-maker to-day must select from this ever-increasing mass of material governing our political, industrial, and social life, the content that will acquaint the pupil with life's crucial social activi-

³⁸See tables in the appendix, showing the percentage of space devoted to political, social, and economic material, to substantiate this statement.

³⁹The report of Professor C. O. Davis on citizenship training based upon a question blank investigation of 1,180 North Central high schools, 1919, is the first significant report to indicate this widening concept of citizenship training. See *School Review*, vol. 28, pages 263-282. Compare with the report of Professor H. H. Moore, quoted in the *School Review*, vol. 28, pages 256-257.

⁴⁰Spencer, H.: *Education*, page 18, A. L. Burt Company, New York.

ties and modes of living. In addition, he must provide pupils with practice in constantly thinking about, and drawing conclusions from, contemporary problems and issues. He must also make use of the necessary history and geography. Herbert Spencer's inquiries seventy years ago made us conscious of this task.

Fourteen years later Spencer published his *Principles of Sociology*. From about that time on, a small group of college men interested themselves in this new subject—the study of society. Chief among these new social science workers were Professors Lester F. Ward and Albion W. Small. Their contribution was the organization and systematization of a vast body of material in this field.

The industrial transformation of America between 1880 and 1900 made leaders of educational reform aware that our courses whose task was to prepare for citizenship must be so broadened as to relate more closely to a changing America. A large city population, transportation and communication systems connecting all parts of the continent, rapid growth of large-scale business, an awakened and powerful labor movement—all these and other factors influenced educators to work for a broadened school curriculum.

In the late 'nineties a new interpreter of education appeared, Professor John Dewey. He believed that the public schools were our chief remedy for the defects of the modern industrial nation that America had come to be by 1900. He studied our schools and found in them serious defects, particularly in so far as they were doing the task allotted to them—preparing pupils to take their proper places in a democracy. Through experimental work with children, Dewey evolved a new philosophy of education. He strongly emphasized the school as a miniature society, so simplified that a pupil by living in it as a citizen could constantly practice citizenship, and thereby learn to know the implications of this term when he became an adult citizen and a factor in the government of his country.

He destroyed the conception that the school only *prepared* for a citizenship that came years afterwards by providing an environment whereby the child actually got practice in *being a citizen* day after day and month after month.

He emphasized social efficiency as the primary aim of education. This was to be gained by actual participation—experiences in the life of a miniature society, in this case the school. "Education, therefore, in Dewey's conception, involves not merely learning, but play, construction, use of tools, contact with nature, expression, and activity, and the school should be a place where children are working rather than listening, learning life by living life, and becoming acquainted with social institutions and industrial processes by studying them."⁴¹ He saw that citizenship meant cooperation and mutual helpful living, and that pupils could be made ready for the responsibilities of citizenship only by giving them practice in meeting obligations daily. He emphasized the necessity of affording pupils opportunity to develop leadership and "fellowship," to make judgments as to what is good and what is bad. His aim was to stimulate each pupil to want to bear his fair share of the load.

The influence of the sociologist and the social efficiency aim of Dewey was reflected in new types of school textbooks in social science that began to appear in the early 1900's. In 1907 Mr. A. W. Dunn published a little text entitled: *The Community and the Citizen*. This book presents in a vivid, concrete way the activities of a modern community. In his introduction the author defends the book by quoting from Professor Dewey and specifically acknowledges the influence of Dewey and of the sociologists, Professors Small and Vincent. The book is written to illustrate the broader concepts of citizenship training. It places emphasis upon the socializing value of a first-hand study of one's own community by means of excursions, debates, investigation of community activities, etc.⁴²

This book was epoch-making in several ways. First, it widened the concept of what civics courses should teach. (The old machinery-of-government and study-of-the-constitution types of civics were replaced by community civics.) Even advanced civics books decreased their space allotted to forms of government and increased

⁴¹Cubberley, E. P.: *Op. cit.*, page 360.

⁴²The book is based upon courses of study descriptive of various community activities in two communities where Mr. Dunn taught; Galesburg, Illinois, and Indianapolis, Indiana.

the space given to descriptions of the services of government and to civic problems. Second, it stimulated many other communities to work out courses adapted to their own particular city or town. Third, it led to the creation of a very influential committee, the N. E. A. Committee on the Social Studies. This committee made its final report in 1916. (See Table I for its recommendations.) An analysis of the report shows to what extent Mr. Dunn's ideas found acceptance.⁴³

This committee brought about several important changes in our social-science curricula. (1) It recommended that ancient and medieval history be combined and taught in one year instead of the two-year period insisted upon by the historians. Textbooks covering this combined course appeared. Their increasing adoptions throughout the country indicates that this recommendation is rapidly being put into practice. (2) It recommended a twelfth-grade course in "Problems of Democracy." Textbooks for this course have only recently appeared, but the history of the introduction of new school texts would lead one to conclude that the course will be taught in many schools in the near future.⁴⁴ (3) It gave an increased emphasis to civics and to other social sciences. The Committee on History and Education for Citizenship, 1918-1921, instead of demanding history in all four years of the high school, allotted two years, the 9th and 12th grades, to other social sciences.

THE WORLD WAR STIMULATED INTEREST IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

We have pointed out earlier in this chapter the increased emphasis given to citizenship training as a result of America's entering the World War in 1917. One of the most significant examples of war work that affected the schools was the publication by the government of *Lessons in Community and National Life*. These

⁴³A considerable portion of the report is given over to a description of community activities similar to those described in Mr. Dunn's book. Note also that the report is chiefly the work of school administrators and teachers closely in touch with the needs and experiences of children.

⁴⁴Two states, New Jersey and Pennsylvania, now require this course. It is significant that the last report of the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship included both the combined ancient and medieval course and the "Problems of Democracy" in their program.

lessons were written, under the direction of Professors C. H. Judd and L. C. Marshall, by various teachers and specialists of the social sciences. They were a part of the war "programs" of the United States Food Administration and the United States Bureau of Education.

The government wished to teach the necessity of conservation and increased production during the war. These lessons, then, were an attempt to illustrate by descriptions of important community and national activities what conservation meant and to give pupils a background of fundamental political, social, and economic institutions.

The important feature of these new materials of instruction is their concreteness. Instead of condensing into a paragraph or two several relatively abstract facts or conclusions about community life, they discuss a given topic for several pages. For example, the concentration and integration of modern business is explained to pupils by describing in three different lessons how it actually happened in some of our "key" industries, such as steel, railroads, and meat-packing. Government is similarly treated by illustrations of how custom controls society, and by examples of the typical services of our government. Historical material is included to give the pupils the necessary background of modern community life. Geography is also used to illustrate how certain aspects of our life to-day depend upon soil, climate, hinterland, etc.

These "Lessons" have been used widely in our schools chiefly as supplementary reading materials. They have influenced the social-science curriculum by the new subject matter that they have introduced and by their simple concrete method of presentation.

INNOVATING TYPES OF TEXTBOOKS ALSO INDICATE WIDENED SOCIAL-SCIENCE CURRICULA

The evidence thus far presented shows that the adoption of new courses or changes and reorganization of existing courses in what we call the social sciences are contingent upon the availability of suitable textbooks. With a large proportion of our elementary-school teachers having at most only a high-school education or a few weeks of normal-school training in addition, and

with teachers in the average high school (of 100 or 250 pupils) forced to teach several different subjects, we cannot expect to find teachers ready to "try" new courses unless a detailed textbook can be placed in their hands.

Within the past few years one of the most significant things is the activity of scores of progressive classroom teachers in the direction of experimentation on new types of materials and new methods of presentation.⁴⁵ It is highly significant to the progress of reorganizing our citizenship courses that this work is being done chiefly in the classroom, with pupils, and that textbooks embodying the results of these trials and experiments are written by teachers cognizant of classroom conditions and of the needs of pupils. These books, while not always representing scientific methods of curriculum-making, are, nevertheless, distinct improvements on texts written apart from the classroom and based upon *a priori* syllabi of committees.

The limit of space prevents further comments upon these books. Representative examples are summarized in Table III. The reader interested in the reconstruction of the social-science curriculum would do well to examine books such as are represented in Table III, and in addition the new proposals and examples of curriculum-making in other chapters of this *Yearbook*.

Do we have a broader kind of social-science curriculum to-day? The answer is, Yes. The most encouraging evidence is the report of what this citizenship training in the schools actually consists. The reading courses in all social sciences and the increasing emphasis upon the extra-curricular activities of the school, as indicated by Prof. Davis' investigation, show that American schools are more nearly approaching the task of citizenship training that educational leaders for years have sought.

A brief comment on the activity of many groups and organizations that are at present making proposals for courses in the social sciences ends our description of how the current courses came to be what they are. A year ago about ten different organizations had committees actively at work on "programs" and recommenda-

⁴⁵See the files of the *Historical Outlook*, a monthly magazine for social-science teachers, for descriptions of such experiments.

TABLE III

INNOVATING TYPES OF SOCIAL SCIENCE TEXTBOOKS AND SYLLABI
A. *Innovating Types of Textbooks*

Author	Title of Text	Place and Date of Publication	Type of Content	Descriptive Comment
Ashley, R. L.	<i>The New Civics</i>	The Macmillan Company, New York, 1920	Civics	Emphasizes the services of government, also citizenship; "the youthful citizen should know how society is organized and what he should do for society as well as what it does for him."
Dole, C. F.	<i>The New American Citizen</i>	D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1918	Civics, Economics	The theme of this book is the ethics of good citizenship. The book is to be used as a basis of studying about civic activities that will make pupils useful citizens.
Dryer, C. R.	<i>Elementary Economic Geography</i>	American Book Company, and New York, 1916	Economic Commercial Geography	Facts and principles of industry and business organized and presented by explaining their geographic basis; it is "a study of the ways in which different peoples get their living."
Ellwood, C. A.	<i>Sociology and Modern Social Problems</i>	American Book Company, New York, 1919	Sociology, Economics	Aims to illustrate the chief factors of social organization. Concrete social and economic problems are presented to make clear this aim.
Giles, F. M. and I. K.	<i>Vocational Civics</i>	The Macmillan Company, New York, 1919	Civics	Intended to acquaint pupils as a part of their civic training with the facts about, and opportunities in, various vocations; a concrete study of American industries and occupations.
Hill, H. C.	<i>Community Life and Civic Problems</i>	Ginn & Company, Boston, 1922	Civics	A combined community civics and social problems textbook for junior high schools. Written by one in intimate touch with school children, taught in mimeographed form in several schools and revised in light of the suitability of the material to children of that age.
Judd, C. H. and Marshall, L. C.	<i>Lessons in Community and National Life.</i>	Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C., 1918	Social Science	Three series of lessons: Series A, for the Senior High School; Series B, for the Junior High School; Series C, for the Intermediate grades. They contain many concrete examples of industrial and community life and lessons dealing with the history of industry, business, and government.
Marshall, L. C. and Lyon, L. S.	<i>Our Economic Organization</i>	The Macmillan Company, New York, 1921	Economics	A new type of economics for the senior high school. Instead of economic theory it presents the distinguishing features of industrial life and discusses them as important community activities.
Tabor, C. W.	<i>The Business of the Household</i>	J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, 1918	Economics, Civics	This book contains content dealing with the household that boys as well as girls should study. Practical, concrete economics of the household is urgently needed in social-science courses.
Thompson, C. M.	<i>History of the United States Political, Industrial, Social</i>	Benj. H. Sanborn & Co., Chicago, 1917	Economics, History	A new type of history text, aiming to include both political and economic history so as to give pupils "a well proportioned view of American life." A departure from the usual school history in its presentation of the subject topically.

TABLE III—(continued)

Author	Title of Text	Place and Date of Publication	Type of Content	Descriptive Comment
Thompson, C. M.	<i>Elementary Economics</i>	Benj. H. Sanborn & Co., Chicago, 1919	Economics	An attempt to explain economic principles by illustrations from everyday experiences and to describe industrial activities and problems by pointing out their relation to the life needs of high-school pupils.
Towne, E.	<i>Social Problems</i>	The Macmillan Company, New York, 1917	Sociology	A discussion of social problems. Aims to indicate the facts about many of our social problems and activities with a view to acquainting pupils with these aspects of society.
Tufts, J. H.	<i>The Real Business Of Living</i>	Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1918	Sociology, Economics	The title, the author says, means doing one's work in the world. The book deals with material designed to point out the nature of our society and the responsibilities attendant upon citizenship in a democracy.
Turkington, G. A.	<i>My Country</i>	Ginn and Company, Boston, 1918	Civics	Aims to create a background which will develop a true spirit of patriotism. It is most important, the author states, "to give elementary school pupils a conviction that America is . . . a nation that really looks to them to-day to help in its building and that patriotism means making the most of every opportunity that this land affords."
<i>B. Innorating Types of Syllabi for Teachers</i>				
Dunn, A. W. and Harris, H. M.	<i>Citizenship in School and Out</i>	D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1919	Civics	The syllabus has as its purpose to provide actual civic training to boys and girls. A description of actual activities of children is the point of departure and the principal medium of civic training.
Tuell, H. E. Latourette, K.	<i>The Study of Nations</i>	Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1919	Modern History	A syllabus that outlines a distinctly novel approach and treatment of modern history. The method is topical and problematic, endeavoring to portray modern history as international civics, to give American boys and girls training that will explain to them world history and their relation to it.

tions. The efforts of a recently organized "National Council For the Social Studies" to bring about the cooperation of all these organizations, as well as the specialists, the teachers, school administrators, and students of education, are already showing results in the willingness of these groups to work together. This fact promises that the social sciences will increase in influence and strength.

Other chapters in this *Yearbook* describe the other significant tendency in the social sciences, namely, experimental procedure in the making of these curricula.

SUMMARY

This chapter has attempted to trace how the current courses in social science came to be what they are. It has presented the facts relative to the origin of these courses and the reasons that such subjects were included in the curriculum. It has tried to emphasize committee procedure as the dominant feature of curriculum-making. It has commented on the expansion of the concept of citizenship training from one of rote memory of the History and Constitution of the United States to one that seeks not only to provide a wide variety of reading courses in social sciences but also to afford opportunities for the exercise of initiative, judgment, and pupil participation in school activities, suitable to the age and maturity of students.

SECTION II. TYPES OF REORGANIZED COURSES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

CHAPTER V AN INTRODUCTION TO SOCIAL STUDIES

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This statement concerning "An Introduction to Social Studies" is concerned mainly with that work at the level of the seventh and eighth grades. In order that as much space as possible may be given over to illustrative material, the writers ask that the material in the chapter on "Introducing Social Studies into the School Curriculum" (see Chapter II) and "The Proposal of the Commission of the Association of Collegiate Schools of Business" (see Chapter III) be regarded as a part of this statement.

The illustrative material which makes up the bulk of this present chapter has been prepared in terms of the following assumptions:

1. It has been assumed that the function of the social studies in the public school curriculum is substantially indicated thus:

"Their purpose is that of giving our youth a realization of what it means to live together in an organized evolving society; an appreciation of how people have lived and do live together; and an understanding of conditions precedent to living together well, to the end that our youth may develop ideals, abilities and tendencies essential to effective participation in a dynamic society."

2. It has been assumed that an "introduction to social studies" suitable to seventh grade use is no proper place for riding the hobbies of any one of the specialized social sciences, such as history, political science, economics, geography or sociology. It should be a *preview* of the whole territory of social studies. It should be a preview, however, which is presented with a full recognition of

the distinctive contribution made by each of the specialized social studies. It should aim to give the pupil some such real sense of continuity and change as history provides: some such real sense of economic organization, of social control, of group activities, and of physical environment as are conferred by the study of economics, government, sociology, and geography, respectively. In other words, it should be *a scientific preview* and not a mere collection of factual material.

3. It has been assumed that the material presented should be selected with the aim of enabling the child to see the great fundamental relationships involved in the process of living together and to see the factors involved in living together well. In other words, it is again emphasized that a mere collection of factual material will not suffice. The facts must be presented in terms of basic relationships.

A PROPOSED TABLE OF CONTENTS

In the light of these three assumptions the character of the material becomes almost self-evident from a survey of the following proposed table of contents of seventh-grade material:

CHAPTER		Percent of total space
	PART I. INTRODUCTION	1
I.	MAN'S PLACE IN THE GREAT CURRENT OF LIFE	
	PART II. MAN IN SIMPLE GROUPS OR SOCIETIES	12
II.	NEANDERTHAL MAN—THE MERE BEGINNINGS OF TOOLS AND COMMUNICATION (His wretched mode of living as related to inadequate tools, both physical and mental)	
III.	THE IROQUOIS: THE BENEFITS OF TOOLS, COMMUNICATION, AND SOCIAL ORGANIZATION <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Introduction: Iroquois as an Example of Neolithic Culture b) The Iroquois as Tool-Makers and Harnessers of Nature (in Shelter-Making, Hunting, Fishing, Agriculture, Domestic Arts) c) The Iroquois as Communicators (Speech, the Forerunners of Writing, Transportation, Trade, Beginnings of Money) d) The Iroquois as Team Workers and Planning Organizers (Social Organization as Seen in Family, Clan, and Village) 	

Life; in Tribal and League Government; in Division of Labor; in Religion and Other Agencies of Social Control; in Property Rights; in Play and Recreation)	25
PART III. MAN THE HARNESSER OF NATURE: MULTIPLICATION OF MAN'S POWERS	
IV. FIRE AND THE METALS AS PHASES OF MAN'S HANESSING OF NATURE	
V. POWER AND THE MACHINE AS OTHER PHASES OF MAN'S HARNESSING OF NATURE	
VI. SCIENCE, THE CREATIVE STAGE OF MAN'S HARNESSING OF NATURE	
VII. THE HARNESSING OF NATURE AND LIVING TOGETHER WELL	
PART IV. MAN THE COMMUNICATOR: FURTHER MULTIPLICATION OF MAN'S POWERS	
CHAPTER	
VIII. SPEECH AND WRITING AS MULTIPLIERS OF MAN'S POWERS	
IX. THE MULTIPLICATION OF COMMUNICATION (PRINTING, TELEGRAPH, TELEPHONE, WIRELESS)	
X. COMMUNICATION BY TRADE AND TRANSPORTATION (INCLUDING MONEY AS LANGUAGE OF TRADE)	
XI. PASSING ON THE TORCH (THROUGH FAMILY, CHURCH, AND SCHOOL)	
XII. COMMUNICATION AND LIVING TOGETHER WELL	
PART V. MAN THE TEAMWORKER AND CO-OPERATOR; SOCIAL ORGANIZATION	
XIII. THE EXPANDING CIRCLES OF MAN'S GROUPINGS (EMPHASIS UPON FAMILY AND POLITICAL GROUPS)	
XIV. THE CO-OPERATION OF SPECIALISTS THROUGH EXCHANGE	
XV. COMPETITION AND PRIVATE PROPERTY AS ORGANIZING FORCES	
XVI. THE MANY FORMS OF SOCIAL CONTROL (EMPHASIS UPON LAW AND GOVERNMENT)	
XVII. SOCIAL ORGANIZATION AND LIVING TOGETHER WELL	
PART VI. MAN THE IDEALIST AND ASPIRER	
XVIII. KNOWLEDGE AND RESEARCH	
XIX. ART AND MUSIC	
XX. LIBERTY, JUSTICE, AND FULLER LIFE FOR ALL	

It is worth noting that a distinct break occurs in the table of contents. Parts I and II (about 15 percent of the total space) are in some real sense introductory to the later parts. Part II, for

example, is nothing but a study of type cases of two simple societies. This study is made in order to enable the child to see fundamental relationships in societies sufficiently simple to let him get these relationships as tools of thought. This having been done, in Parts III, IV, V, VI, these relationships are taken up, in order, for more careful examination, and for examination with particular reference to our living together well to-day and in the future.

The spirit behind the treatment of Chapter II of the foregoing Table of Contents is reflected in the following sample taken from the closing pages of that chapter.

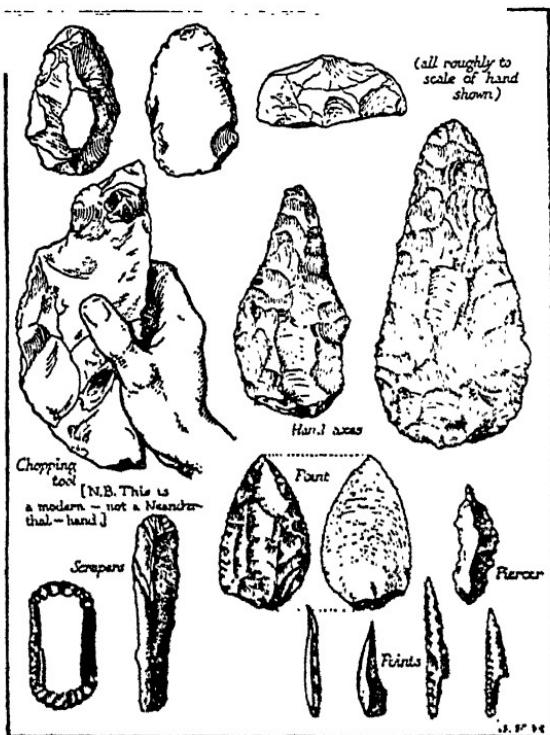
SAMPLE FROM PROPOSED CHAPTER II

This account makes us realize how far man has climbed.—Let us think back over this account of the life of Neanderthal man and get from it and from other evidence, certain general ideas concerning his life. These generalizations will help us to make some comparisons with the way we live to-day.

1. Let us begin by noticing how ineffective he was in getting his shelter, food, and clothing. As far as we can judge, in the pre-glacial period he had little more shelter than most wild animals have in their forest lairs. Quite likely he knew enough to break off branches and make rude dens in caves or by the sides of cliffs, but there is no reason to suppose that he could build a shelter anything like as good as the house the beaver makes. And, without the protection of good shelter, how he must have trembled at the threatening sounds of the huge animal life surging and crushing about him. Even when the glaciers, creeping down from the north, brought on a semiarctic climate, cold and damp, he could not build houses. He sought shelter under overhanging cliffs, and chatteringingly disputed with the animals for possession of such natural shelter as caves afforded.

His plight with respect to food was no better. He grew no fruits nor vegetables. He did not raise crops of any kind. Such a thing did not occur to man for thousands of years after his time. He ate such plant products as he found growing wild, and these were wretched specimens when compared with our cultivated fruits and vegetables of to-day. He had no domestic animals—not even the dog—so that he raised no food by having herds. A hunter he was, but an ineffective one, for his weapons were puny and feeble against all fair-sized game and against all swift game. Very likely he had clubs and sharp sticks and he certainly had hand hatchets of

fint, but it is not likely that he had learned to "haft" spears and axes by attaching his flints to handles. Bows and arrows he had not. It is not even likely that he had the fish-hook, and almost certainly, he had no nets. It is just barely possible that he knew how to dig trenches—at what cost of painful handscratching of dirt!—to snare mammoths, and if this is really true, one can imagine these yelling forerunners of ours standing on the edge of the ditch and working for hours even to kill the giant they had trapped.



EARLY STONE IMPLEMENTS

(Taken from Wells: *The Outline of History*.)

The top row shows stone implements of what was probably Sub-man; the second and third rows show implements of Neanderthal man. Neanderthal man probably did not know how to attach handles to his tools. They were "hand tools." The bottom row shows implements of the successor of Neanderthal man. You will notice that they are much smaller and much more delicately made.

In the main, you see, they had to depend for their food upon very uncertain means. They were almost certainly hungry for more of the time than they were well fed. And such food as it was! If it was cooked at all, it must have been by cooking it in the ashes, for they had no pots or other cooking vessels. And its eating was certainly not attended by any use of such tools as knives and forks, and not blessed with anything that we should recognize as table manners.

As for clothing, anything better than rough, unsewn skins of animals, poorly cured by drying them in the sun, never entered their heads. Any such thing as cloth came thousands of years later, and even animal skins could not have been very plentiful in view of the wretched character of the hunting tools.

You would not wish to have such meager and uncertain food, clothing, and shelter.

2. His mental tools, as represented by words and speech, were as poor as his physical tools, as represented by stone hand-hatchets and clubs. Have you ever realized how important words—speech—are to you in trying to think? They are the tools of thought. You are proving this fact when thoughts rise to your mind as you read the words of this book. Early Neanderthal man had few words, and his lack of words limited his power to think, just as his lack of bows, arrows, and guns limited his power to kill game. Such thoughts as he had were passed on to others by gestures, grimaces, and by some few words. Of course, they could not make many plans together under such circumstances, and of course this lessened their “team-work” and so handicapped them in getting food, clothing and shelter, and indeed, in all their “living together.” Just compare their ability to communicate with one another, to plan together, to talk things over, to teach one another, with what we have to-day. We have not only speech, but writing, and we have books, newspapers, telephones, schools, churches, movies, and a host of other “thought quickeners” and “plan transmitters.” We can really “work together” fairly effectively.

You would not wish to be without our modern speech and means of communication.



Dagger of a California Indian with a grip made by binding around the stone dagger a long strip of otter skin. Probably Neanderthal man did not even make such grips.

3. In such matters as health, recreation, government, and religion, Neanderthal man was as pinched as he was in getting the necessities of life, food, clothing, and shelter. We should have to guess so much about his recreation and about what we would call his religion and government, that we shall wait to study such matters until we take a snapshot of a much more advanced savage life that has actually been seen by modern writers. But we know what must have been the state of affairs as regards the health of Neanderthal man. It must have been wretched. No doctors, no hospitals, no knowledge of what caused sickness, or what to do about it—and this in the midst of a situation full of dangers to life and limb, and full of causes of sickness. Cold, damp, arctic cave life, with poor food and clothing do not make healthful surroundings, and it must have been anything but a safe occupation to have hunted the animals of that time with the weapons at man's disposal.

You would not wish to have your health safeguarded as poorly as was that of Neanderthal man.

4. And now we come to the most important generalization of all. He lived as safely and well as he did, largely because he had at least begun to use tools—to harness nature and to make it do his bidding. You will find, as we go on in this book, that man's climb can be told—it is only one way of telling it—as a story of man's increasing power to harness dame Nature—and you are now seeing the beginning of this harnessing.

He did have fire, and that fact saved him when the glaciers came. How man originally got fire we cannot be sure. Perhaps he got it from volcanoes. Perhaps he got it from some burning forest tree which had been kindled by lightning. Perhaps he got it from nature in some other way. Whether Neanderthal man knew how to "make fire" is uncertain, but some writers believe that he was able to do so by striking iron pyrites—a kind of iron ore—together and letting the resulting sparks fall in a handful of dry grass. This much we know: the dead embers of his fires have been found in his caves along with his crude tools and with the bones of the animals he ate. And fire meant life for him and a chance for the race to improve. It was a first step in harnessing nature.

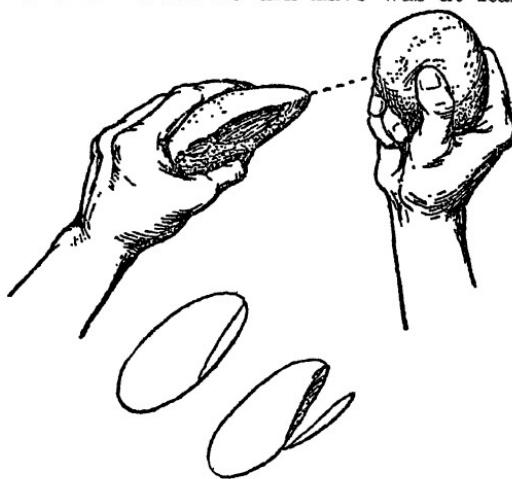


This shows an Eskimo striking fire with two pieces of pyrite. In the hand at the right you can see one piece of pyrite just under the thumb. Under this pyrite is held some dry tinder upon which the sparks are to fall.

And he did have clubs and sticks and crude stone tools, even if he did not join them together and make arrows and axes with handles. What he did have was at least a beginning, and in a

very real sense, his tools are the forefathers of all the wonderful tools and machines which to-day help us so much in our living together.

His stone tools were made of flints which, as you know, will often break in such a way as to leave a sharp cutting edge. Very likely man's first stone "tools" were just conveniently-shaped stones which he found and which he did not "make" at all. But our Neanderthal man had reached the point

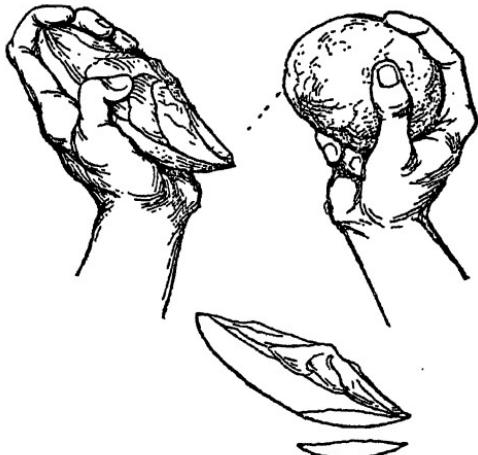


This shows the first step in making a thin blade by percussion. Flakes are taken off all around the stone.

of *making* these stone tools and that was no slight advance, as you will soon come to believe if you try to make some yourself. They are by no means easy to make.

The stone tools of Neanderthal man may seem very crude and ineffective to us but we must remember that these tools *did* enable him to kill some animals, to crush bones for the marrow, to skin animals and to scrape the skins, to hack clubs and sticks into shape, and, in general, to do more than could be done with the bare hand. This was progress—great progress.

But you would not wish to be dependent for your progress upon such crude tools.



This shows the beginning of the shaping of the other side of the boulder.

SAMPLE FROM PROPOSED CHAPTER III

The attempt to lead the child to generalizations concerning what is involved in living together well is illustrated in the following selection from proposed Chapter III.

b) The Iroquois as Tool-Makers and Harnessers of Nature

(In Shelter-Making, Hunting, Fishing, Agriculture, and Domestic Arts)

The Iroquois lived in a very favorable physical environment.—The region in which they lived, as you know from your study of geography, was well fitted to serve the three main pursuits of the Iroquois—fishing, hunting, and agriculture—which they had learned in their earlier living. The region abounded with lakes and streams which fairly teemed with fish. So plentiful, indeed, were the fish that the early French explorers tell us of a single fisherman harpooning as many as three hundred eels in one night's fishing. Then, too, it was a hilly region whose forests of maple, pine, ash, spruce, elm, oak, and other noble trees sheltered moose, deer, beavers, bears, rabbits, squirrels, pigeons, ducks, geese, turkeys, and dozens of other representatives of wild animal and bird life. The wild plant life was equally abundant and provided, in the way of food, such things as acorns, hickory nuts, chestnuts, walnuts, cranberries, strawberries, raspberries, grapes, pawpaws, whortleberries, may apples, crab apples, and many edible roots. The forest yielded, too, the raw materials of such crude "manufacturing" as they engaged in. The various trees gave the materials for canoes, snow-shoes, bark barrels, bark baskets, la crosse sticks, and many other implements. The inner fibers of the elm and moose wood, together with the wild hemp, gave material for coarse thread with which to supplement vines, animal tendons, and strips of skin as binders and lashings. Reeds from which mats could be made were abundant, and the skins of animals could be fashioned into clothing. The fertile valleys and hillsides gave good locations for raising the corn, beans, squashes, and melons which were their main agricultural products. As one thinks back over the many ways in which nature helped these people, one begins to understand what is meant by saying that the physical environment is very important in determining whether men can live together well. Climate, soil, plants, and animals are very important to man.

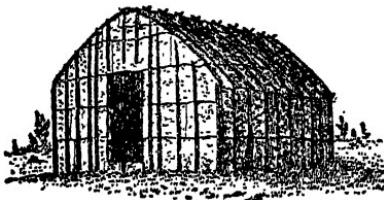
The Iroquois harnessed nature in providing shelter.--When we read about Neanderthal man we saw that it was also very important, if man was to live well, that he should have tools, that he should be a harnesser of nature. Let us look at the various im-

plements or tools which the Iroquois had and, first of all, let us look at their shelter.

The Iroquois called themselves "Ho-de-no-sau-nee" or "People of the long house," and the name was well chosen. When the Iroquois built a house, they set upright in the ground two rows of long hickory saplings, from which the bark had been stripped. These rows might run for eighty or one hundred, or even more, feet and they were from eighteen to thirty feet apart. The saplings, which had been set opposite each other in pairs, were then bent over toward each other so as to make a long series of arches. The builders then lashed split poles lengthwise on these uprights much as we to-day put laths on the uprights of a frame house. Then they lashed great slabs of bark on this framework of the wall and roof, leaving an open space about a foot wide at the crown of the roof so that the smoke of their fires could get out. These slabs of bark were nice and flat because they had been stripped from trees a long time before the building was begun, and had been placed in piles under heavy weights to dry. Outside this covering of bark were lashed still other upright poles so that the whole was really quite strong and rigid. They used lashings because they had no metals and therefore no iron nails.

Such partitions as they wished to make inside the houses were built of the same material, or were made of animal skins. These partitions did not reach clear across the long house. An open passageway about six feet wide ran its whole length and in this passageway there was a fire for each compartment. For each fire there were two families, the fire being between them. This gave each family a sort of alcove which was from six to ten feet deep and from thirteen to eighteen feet long.

In some long houses a sort of seat or couch, made of poles and perhaps two feet high, ran along the wall, and this served for what we would call chairs and beds. Higher up on the walls there might be another wide shelf which served as a place to put utensils and household goods. At the very ends of the long house there might be a sort of a vestibule which could be used either as a storage place, or as a place for the young men to sleep, or for both purposes. Windows there were none, and of doors there were only

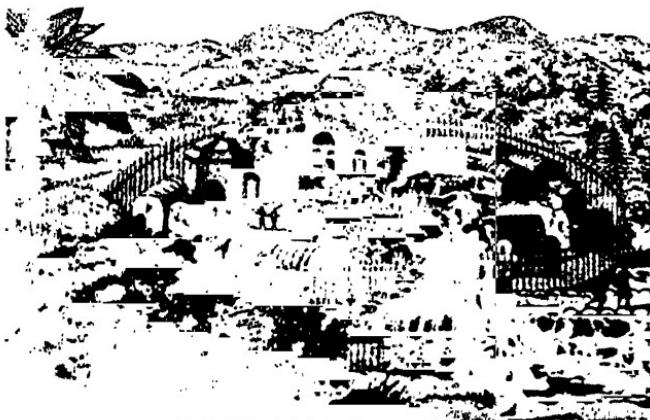


This shows the method of construction of the Iroquois barkhouse. Most of the houses were much longer than this picture shows. Several "families" lived in one "long house."

two, one at each end of the long house. Some doors seem to have been made of bark and to have had a crude sort of a wooden hinge. Apparently, others were just curtains of skins. Just above the door was a crude representation of an animal or bird from which the particular group living in that long house took its name. There were eight such groups (the scientific name is *gens* with the plural *gentes*) in the Iroquois tribes, classified in two divisions. The wolf, the bear, the beaver, and the turtle made up one great division; the deer, the snipe, the heron, and the hawk made the second. The Senecas, Cayugas, and Onondagas had all eight of these gentes; the Oneidas and Mohawks had only three.

It is easy to see that these long houses were fairly permanent shelters and that the Iroquois would naturally use in their fishing and hunting trips and on their war trails a more temporary structure. On these occasions they seem to have made a sort of a

The Indian Fort - SASQUESAHANOR



This shows a village with a palisade around the long houses. Some palisades were solid and had a platform around the inside upon which the defenders could stand. Notice the space in the center of the village for the council fire. There were no regular streets. It does not look much like any village you know. There are no schools, churches, waterworks, paved streets, electric lights, street cars, stores—just a cluster of dwellings.

triangular, tentlike affair, using for the walls branches of trees, or bark, or both, as might be most convenient.

As for the long houses, they occasionally stood alone, but much more frequently several of them were grouped together to form a village. The whole village was sometimes protected by a sort of

stockade, or palisade, made of logs. Such a village stronghold was likely to be located on a side of a steep hill near a stream of water. The hill and the stream gave them some protection against a sudden raid by an enemy and at the same time gave them the needed ready access to water. Once a village was made, it was likely to remain in the same place as many as ten or fifteen years, since it was not usually worth while to move unless the surrounding soil had become poor, or the game and fish scarce.

This description of Iroquois shelter may sound like an account of one of our pleasant vacation shelters. In the summer some of us get a good deal of enjoyment by going away from our noisy, complex city life and living simply, with few tools and few household utensils, in the woods. But when we do this, we live with a great deal more comfort than did the Iroquois. To begin with, they must have been a bit crowded in their homes. Here they kept their bark barrels of dried corn, nuts, and dried berries, and here they hung their strings of dried squashes and their braids of corn ears, the husks being used for the braiding. Here must be kept the skins, pottery, bows, arrows, war clubs, clothing, and playthings of the whole group. Fortunately, they had learned to construct outside the long houses fairly dry pits in which they kept such things as parched corn, beans, and acorns. Many of our farmers still use such a device, and in frontier life such a place for hiding or storing things for future use is called a "cache."

Quite aside from the crowding, there were other unpleasant features. With all their many good qualities, the Indians were not a very cleanly lot and the long house rather quickly became greasy, dirty, and smoke-smirched. In the winter time, indeed, the smoke was so bad that apparently it was not very comfortable to stand erect. Their couches did keep them off the damp ground, but they were not the only users of the couches; fleas and bedbugs were plentiful. This sort of a place, filled occasionally with the stench of fish being dried in the smoke of the fires, was not as pleasant a place to live in as your summer cottage.

Appropriative, adaptive, and creative stages in shelter-making.—But with all that, Neolithic man (as illustrated by the Iroquois) had far better shelter than Neanderthal man. This is as good a place as any to begin to understand what is meant by certain terms which show stages, or steps, in man's harnessing of nature. The terms which we shall need to understand are these: the *appropriative* period, the *adaptive* period, and the *creative* period.

Let us now illustrate these terms by talking of them in connection with man's shelter. As far as his shelter was concerned, Neanderthal man was in the *appropriative* period. The word

"appropriate" means "take." Man merely *took* what nature supplied him in the way of shelter and did nothing to improve it. This means that he sought shelter under bushes and in caves.

When Neanderthal man began to make a few improvements (as very likely he did) he was beginning the "adaptive" period. You can see that the word means that man takes things furnished by nature and *adapts* them, or modifies them, or works them over into better shape for his use. When Neanderthal man piled a heap of stones at the mouth of his cave to keep wild animals out, he was adapting, he was modifying nature. He had begun the "adaptive" period. Our Iroquois friends were distinctly in the adaptive period. They took bark and skins and poles and fashioned them into dwelling-places.

We shall not now stop to see all the steps by which men gradually passed into the creative period, which means that man is no longer content merely to appropriate or even to adapt. He *makes* or *creates* new fibers and substances—fibers and substances not found in nature, and from these fashions all sorts of things. In our house-building to-day, we are partly adaptive, but we are largely creative. We adapt with stones and lumber but we have created new substances in bricks, mortar, plaster, glass, and steel. Our modern houses and modern skyscrapers are, as a result, as far superior to the long houses of the Iroquois as these long houses were superior to the damp, dirty, smelly cave of Neanderthal man.

You will find as we go on with our study that what is true of our shelter is true of everything else and that these words, appropriate, adaptive, and creative, will come to mean much to you as you watch man in his long process of harnessing the forces of nature to do his bidding.

ANOTHER SAMPLE FROM PROPOSED CHAPTER III

The foregoing sample is an illustration of the treatment of one fundamental social fact—the harnessing of nature. The following is an illustration of the treatment of "man the communicator." It is, in the original, pointed toward letting the student see that we are to-day vitally interested in good communication:

c) The Iroquois as Communicators

(Speech, the forerunners of writing, transportation, trade, and the beginnings of money)

The Iroquois were great communicators.—We have already seen that as far as communication was concerned, Neanderthal man was in a bad way. He could make faces, he could shrug his

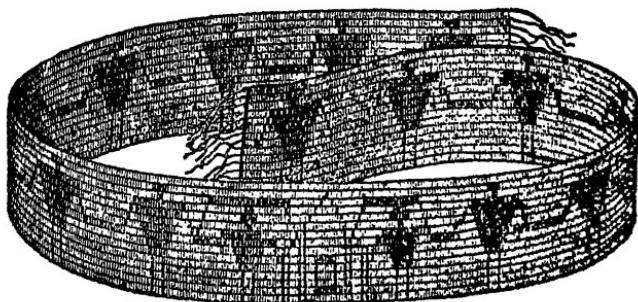
shoulders, he could shake his fist; but he could not talk, or if he could talk, his words were so few that he had a very difficult time in his communicating. Of course the Iroquois had no such modern communicating devices as newspapers, telephones, telegraph, wireless, the post office, schools or churches, but they did have the tool of speech—they could talk—and this was very important. You can see how much it meant to them by the way they used it in their councils. Every important happening resulted in a council being called and at this council there was much talking and making of plans. It might be a council concerning whether to go on the war path against some other tribe; it might be a council to plan a big hunting or fishing expedition; it might be a council to elect a chief to take the place of one who had died; it might be for some other important purpose. Whatever the purpose, the council was to the Indian a very important thing. He never did anything worth while without it and he never had a council without much speech-making. The Iroquois, indeed, were known far and wide as great orators.

Another sign of the importance of speech as a means of communicating is found in the work of the story-teller. In every group there was quite certain to be someone who had come to be known as a good story-teller, and this story-teller was always certain of an interested audience. He recited to them all sorts of things: the Indian account of the way the world was made; stories of Indian gods or spirits; stories of the wise actions of chiefs either living or dead; stories of witches; stories of great events in the history of the tribe; stories of fact and stories of fancy. All were greedily heard. It was one of the most important ways by which the young people learned the wisdom of the tribe. Indeed, the story-telling was such a temptation that by tribal custom the story-teller was forbidden to tell his stories in the summer season (we say there was a *taboo* upon it) when there was much work to be done. He must confine his story-telling to the winter when work was not so pressing. It would be hard to find a clearer proof of man's love of talk than this.

But the Iroquois was not able to write. He had no alphabet and no writing as we understand that word. He did, however, do some things that among other peoples finally led to the development of an alphabet and to the development of writing. We cannot tell the story of the development of the alphabet at this time; that will come in chapter viii. But we can at this time see what the Iroquois Indians were doing that might have led to writing, had the white people not discovered them for a few thousand years.

Such things have led to writing among other peoples, as we shall see.

To begin with, there was their so-called picture writing. This means simply that they would draw crude pictures which told some story. A group on the war path, for example, might draw on a tree pictures which would tell their friends how many there were of them, what direction they had gone, and even what they had done to the enemy. In a village there might be a war post and there would be accounts of the wars on this post in picture writing.



This shows the George Washington wampum belt, commemorating the peace treaty between the Iroquois and the United States during the presidency of Washington.

One sign would mean a war, another sign ≠ would stand for a scalp taken, still another sign X for a prisoner taken alive; and so on. This war post would become, for those who knew what the signs mean, a written record of happenings. Longfellow, in *The Song of Hiawatha*, has a very interesting account of picture writing. Of course, one had to know what the signs meant, but so do you with these signs you are now reading. Our letters and words are, after all, merely signs that we have learned to understand.

They had a sort of wampum writing too. Now, this was really not writing at all. It was very much like your tying a string around your finger when you want to remember something important. Every time you look at the string it brings back to your mind that which you wish to remember. The Indians used wampum strings or wampum belts in just this way. The wampum bead was a piece of shell which had been perforated and made into a bead. Whenever an important thing happened in the history of the tribe, as for example when they made a treaty with some other tribe or later with the white man, they wove a lot of these wampum shells together in such a way that the persons who saw it done

would understand that the string or belt stood for really quite a long story. It was a kind of picture writing. Of course, what the belt meant could readily be forgotten unless people kept reminding themselves of the story. Accordingly, at some of their councils, the chief whose duty it was to keep the wampum records would rise in the council meeting with his belts and strings and would recite to the council the laws and treaties and happenings which were woven into these belts. In this way others learned what the belts stood for, so that such records were passed down from generation to generation.

The following will serve as an illustration of the treatment of another fundamental fact,—social organization. In the original it is preceded by much factual material and followed by still other illustrations of social control.

d) The Iroquois as Team Workers and Planning Organizers

(Social organization as seen in family, clan, and village life; in tribal and league government; in division of labor; in religion and other agencies of social control; in property rights; in play and recreation.)

There was social control through government, custom, and public opinion.—As we have seen, a group or society is made up of people who think and talk and act about the same things in much the same way—who have common interests. In every such group or society it always happens that what is done is very much controlled by the group. We call this *group control*, or *social control*.

There are many forms, or kinds, of social control. There is, for example, control by the government. It is clear that the great central league of the Iroquois had a sort of government and that it controlled in some very important matters, such as declaring peace or war. The same was true of tribal councils.

For the ordinary man, however, the group control that was most felt was that of his gens and village. As an illustration of how this worked out, let us see what happened when anyone needed punishment.

If one Iroquois killed another, the gens to which the murderer belonged must send a present of much white wampum to the gens of the victims. If this was not sent, the victim's gens would appoint an avenger who was to take the life of the murderer. This planning was, of course, all worked out through the usual councils.

If anyone became a traitor to the group or was supposed to practice witchcraft, he became an enemy of all and a council decided his fate. He might be executed, or he might be declared

no longer to be a member of the group. Such a declaration was almost equal to an execution, for then every member of the group was free to kill this enemy—this person who did not belong to the group. As is true of most early societies, any person who did not belong to the group was considered an enemy.

The punishment for lesser wrong doing, however, was usually worked out through what we call public opinion. The Iroquois, as is true of most savage peoples, did not change their ways of doing things very much as time went on. They kept on doing what had always been the customary thing. We say that they were ruled by tradition and custom. Their traditions and customs were very well known by all members of the group and anyone who disregarded them did wrong in the eyes of the group. His punishment came by feeling the scorn and anger of other members of the group. It is a little hard for us to understand this way of doing things for we are not so much bound by custom and tradition. We feel more free to experiment and to do things a little different from the way they have ordinarily been done. But even we are much bound by custom, and we know something about being punished by public opinion. You can name several things that you would not do because you would not wish to bring down upon yourself the dislike of your playmates. This feeling was very strong among the Iroquois and took care of many things that we to-day take care of by means of law and the policeman or by other means.

There was social control through religion.—The ordinary person was controlled in part by custom, tradition, and public opinion, as we have just seen. He was also controlled by religion. Let us see what that means.

It is very hard for us to understand the "religion" of a savage because it is hard for us to think of things in the way he thought of them. Let us think of his religion as his effort to understand the world about him. Let us remember that many things which we understand quite well were very puzzling to him—were "magic" indeed. For example, you and I know enough about lightning to know that it is caused by the same electricity which is in our electric light wires. Not so the savage! Some "spirit" must be behind the lightning! You and I know that germs cause diphtheria. Not so the savage! An outbreak of diphtheria must have been caused by angry spirits! The sun's regular rising must, to his way of thinking, be governed by a spirit. A falling meteorite must surely be a spirit with streaming, flaming hair! And so it went. The savage mind was full of fears and superstitions about the world in which he lived. But let us remember that his notions

about the world, strange as they seem to us, were his "explanations" of that world.

Apparently a great many of his "explanations" grew out of the fact that he often dreamed as he slept. In these dreams he seemed to see persons who were at the time far away. Some were, indeed, dead. He saw also animals, trees, etc. He, himself, in his dreams "went away from his body" to other places. Then, too, a fellow tribesman would occasionally fall in a fit (which seemed to the Indian a sleep from which he could not be awakened) and upon recovery he could sometimes tell of strange "experiences" while he "was away from his body." You can readily see how he arrived at his crude notions of his "soul," as we should say it, and that he could easily believe that animals, birds, fish, trees, rocks, and all other things which he saw in his dreams also had "souls." Since dreams seemed so important to them, it is not surprising that the Iroquois had a sort of "dream ceremonial" every year at which everyone must do all in his power to make any dream of anyone else come true, even to giving him all your property and sometimes even to committing murder, or at least pretending to do so. It is not surprising, either, that when a youth "came of age," he went to some quiet place to fast, hoping that he would see in his dreams some animal that would from that time be a sort of guiding spirit to him—that would be his "good medicine."

You see, his religion was not like ours. Before the white man came, the Iroquois had not learned to think of there being only one great spirit. They thought there were multitudes of spirits. They had a sort of vague notion that everything could think and act just as men could do, and that it was wise to be friends with the spirits of everything. There was the spirit of the sky, the sun, the rain, the winds, frost, hail, stones, trees, and animals. Some spirits were good spirits and they were to be praised and thanked. Other spirits were evil spirits and men ought to soothe them and prevent them from getting angry.

The Heno myth was typical of their myths.—All sort of tales (we would call them myths) were told by them about the spirits. Heno, the Thunderer, was one of the most kindly of spirits. He brought the rain, helped the crops grow, hated and killed serpents and "false faces" or bad spirits. He carried on his back a great basket of bowlders and he threw them at evil spirits in the sky. If he missed, these bowlders fell to earth as balls of fire. This, of course, was the lightning.

Heno now lives "in the west" in the skies. He used to live under the falls at Niagara but his home was destroyed in the

curious way shown below. When he was still living under the falls, so one myth goes, there was a village up the river whose people were dying of pestilence. Heno told them that the trouble was that there was a great serpent in the ground who wanted to eat their dead bodies. This serpent accordingly poisoned the river so that there would be more dead bodies. Heno advised the villagers to move up Buffalo Creek.

This they did. The serpent missed his usual meals, and, putting his head above the water, he discovered what had happened and went up the creek after them. Heno gave him a mortal wound with a great thunder-bolt. The serpent turned to rush down the river and escape, and in its turning it bulged the shores of the creek out into bends which still remain, but it could not escape. Heno followed it with his thunder-bolts.



This picture of Heno, the thunder spirit, was drawn by an Iroquois. In his hair is the magic feather which made it impossible for the spirits of evil to harm him. This artist evidently thinks of Heno's arrows, rather than his boulders, as the source of lightning.

The great carcass of the serpent floated down the river and lodged at the falls with its huge bulk reaching up stream in the form of a half-circle. This dammed the water, and finally so much water gathered above the serpent that it crumbled the rocks under the body and formed the great horseshoe falls of Niagara. Of course, this destroyed Heno's home under the old falls.

Stories like this were told of all sorts of spirits. They furnished, indeed, a large part of the stock in trade of the village story-tellers and, of course, they were believed by the children who listened to them, and they became a part of the "religion" of the people.

FINAL SAMPLE FROM PROPOSED CHAPTER III

As a final illustration, there is given the conclusions of proposed Chapter III, some suggested problems, and a list of the collateral reading for that Chapter.

Summary and Conclusion

This has been a rather long story of our Iroquois friends and it is, therefore, worth while to think back over the whole story and get its main points in mind.

1. The first thing which stands out is the fact that the Iroquois lived much better than did Neanderthal man. In large part this was because they knew better how to use tools, because they were better harnessers of nature. This fact came out in our discussion of their weapons, of their shelter, of their household implements, and of their agriculture. The Neanderthal people were appropriators; the Iroquois were appropriators and adapters; we are today appropriators and adapters and creators, and our greater ability to harness nature means much greater ability to live together well.

2. The Iroquois was a better communicator than was Neanderthal man. He became as a result a better planner. True, he had only the beginnings of communicating with other people as far as trading with them was concerned, but he had made this beginning. We saw that his trading gave him birch canoes which were better than the elm canoes he could make himself. From the whole story of the Iroquois as communicators we get the idea that we ourselves can live together better by communicating with others, both in speech and in writing, and in exchange of goods. We begin to see money as a language of trade.

3. The Iroquois were teamworkers; they co-operated; they made plans and worked together in carrying out those plans. They

"pulled together" in the gens, in the village, in the tribe, and in the league. They pulled together in hunting, in tilling the soil, in war, and in play. They accomplished more by co-operating than they could have accomplished if each worked or fought alone. This gives us a hint that we ourselves shall live together well to the extent to which we are co-operators and planning organizers.

4. The Iroquois had group or social control. They had government and law but their social control was worked out mainly through custom, religion, and public opinion. In their religion we catch a glimpse of "man the aspirer," for in their religion they were seeking "the explanation of things."

Problems

1. The Iroquois had no metals. What did they do for nails? For cooking utensils? For cutting tools? For hammering tools? For drilling tools?

2. In the account of how the Iroquois lived, we had almost a complete list of their tools and devices, and it did not take up much space. Would it take much space to list all our devices to-day? Are they all listed in a mail-order catalogue? How does it happen we have so many?

3. How do we store our foods to-day? Does the housewife store any? Does the grocer? Does the wholesaler? Does the grower? What are grain elevators? What are cold-storage plants? Have we ways of preserving foods which were unknown to the Iroquois?

4. Some Indian tribes had no pottery. They boiled meat thus: they dug a hole, lined it with the skin of some large animal, put in water and raw meat and then threw in red-hot stones from a nearby fire. This is "hot stone boiling." Is this a tool? If it is, give reasons why it is not as good a tool as pottery.

5. The Iroquois squaw sewed skins with a bone needle and with thread made of animal tendons. What do we use to-day? Not much of our clothing is sewed by hand. How is it sewed? Is it all sewed in the home?

6. Make as long a list as you can of the devices we use in communicating with one another to-day. Do the same in the case of transportation devices.

7. In what big ways did the Iroquois harness nature better than did Neanderthal man? Do we harness nature better than did the Iroquois?

8. Notice the range of diet of the Iroquois. Compare it with our diet by looking on the shelves of a grocery and a meat store

and by glancing through your mother's cookbook. Can you work out any reasons why the range of our diet is so much greater? Does range of diet affect health?

9. Notice the kinds and qualities of clothing of the Iroquois. Compare this situation with our situation by looking over the shelves of a clothing store and a drygoods store and by glancing through the catalogue of some big mail-order house. Can you work out any reasons why we have so many more forms of clothing, made of so many more kinds of material?

10. At your dinner to-day make a list of the things you have, including both utensils and kinds of food, which the Iroquois did not have. If some of your food is the same in kind as that of the Iroquois, how much of the preparation which the Iroquois squaw gave this food is now carried on in your home?

11. Are you quite sure you understand what is meant by the appropriative, adaptive, and creative periods of man's progress? If you have any doubt of it, read again the pages dealing with those periods, for you will need to use these terms.

12. When we were studying Neanderthal man, we said that no stories of how he lived had been handed down through the generations to us. Concerning the Iroquois, however, we tell what tradition says about the way they lived around Puget Sound and in the Mississippi Valley. How does it happen that traditions have not come down from Neanderthal man and that they have come down from the early Iroquois?

13. Think back over the way the Iroquois traded. Is more trading done to-day? Is it done in the same way?

14. Think back over how the Iroquois tried to cure a sick person. Compare the medicines used with the number on the shelves of a modern drugstore. How long do our doctors study before they try to cure people? Do you begin to see what we mean when we say we use *science* to-day?

15. Make a list of the ways in which an Iroquois youth could learn about their laws, customs, and religion. What ways have you to-day?

16. Have we anything in our government which is at all like the League of the Iroquois? Anything which is at all like their great autumnal council?

17. Someone has said that one of the greatest services of science is that it has freed man from many foolish fears and has made him feel safe. Can you illustrate this by comparing us with the Iroquois, who had no science?

Collateral Reading

Collateral reading for this chapter includes such topics as the following:

1. A tribe of nomads (to show significance of domestication of animals).
2. The relation of geography to early transportation.
3. Woman's share in primitive culture.
4. The Iroquois myth of the creation.
5. Primitive man's knowledge as reflected in myth, fetishism, totemism, and taboo.
6. Caste as an organizing force.
7. Ants and aphids ("harnessing" on an instinctive basis).
8. References to Longfellow: *The Song of Hiawatha*.

The illustrations given have been confined to the introductory material, found in Parts I and II (see Table of Contents at the beginning of this chapter). But these illustrations and the full table of contents will serve to show the method which, it is here contended, should be followed in the presentation of the social studies in the seventh and eighth grades. The material should be rich with facts and with matters which can readily be connected up with the experiences of the children and it should be organized around the great basic relationships of our living together well.

With such material in the seventh grade, it would be possible to pass on in the eighth grade to a discussion of the place of the individual in society and in the ninth grade to a discussion of principles of social organization.

CHAPTER VI

BUILDING A FACT COURSE IN HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY

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Having discovered by objective study the relative importance of outstanding persons, places, and events (see Ch. XIII), the problem of molding the large and miscellaneous material into a curriculum adapted to elementary children confronted the Winnetka Social Science Seminar. Since this part of the work is still in process, this chapter is a report of progress and of method, not a report of a completed task. Although the seminar is still active, the bulk of the curriculum-making work is being done by our full-time research worker, Louise M. Mohr. The members of the seminar act as critics and advisors, and report directly on the children's reaction.

The first step toward making a curriculum was to break up our main list into some thirty topical lists. In one such list, for example, are collected the personages of ancient history. Christ leads, followed in order of importance by Caesar, Plato, Homer, Aristotle, Vergil, David (Biblical), Socrates, Solomon, Paul, Cicero, Cleopatra, Alexander, etc. Another topical list consists of places known to the ancients; another, of United States history from the Civil War to now, and so on. These topical lists form a skeleton for each phase of history and geography teaching.

They are only a skeleton, however. It is one thing to know that we must teach something about Caesar, quite another to know what to teach about him, and still another to know how to teach it. Each is a distinct research problem.

Various ways of determining what to teach about any given item (such as Caesar) were discussed. We might prepare an association test and get a large number of people to write down the associations that occurred to them on the mention of Caesar's name.

The large number of items, however, and the difficulty of getting enough people to write their associations on each, made such a method practically impossible.

A second suggestion was that we might go through our 266 periodicals a second time, noting the connection in which each of our top 1447 items is mentioned. This would have greatly delayed the practical outcome of our course, however, and might have resulted in some badly warped history. It would be interesting to try this method, but we had not the necessary time.

A more direct method, and possibly the best method, was the one we finally adopted.

Knowing that we have to teach children something about Caesar, we consult the best authorities we can find who write about him. These authorities include some source materials, some works on recent research in the field, and some advanced standard works, such as the *Britannica*. Out of the various incidents described by the various writers, certain ones stand out clearly as very important in the minds of those who know most about the subject. These are used to give meaning to the names on our list.

It may occur to some people that if we accept the historians' judgment on which incidents are most important, we might as well have accepted their judgment as to which topics we should teach. In other words, perhaps we might have saved ourselves the trouble of the investigation of allusions in periodicals. The relative importance of topics, however, may be entirely different from the point of view of the historian, interested in history for its own sake, and that of the elementary school, interested in enabling children to understand what other people are talking and writing about. This fact necessitated the periodical research described in Chapter XIII. As to the incidents concerning each topic, however, relative ranking is less important. We simply need vivid, truthful, color material to make our persons, places, and events real. This material can safely be taken directly from historians.

Nevertheless, we cannot merely throw names and incidents together and call the result a curriculum. Certain organizing principles are needed to give unity and coherence to the whole. In our own minds we have certain general purposes which we use in or-

ganizing our work. One of these is to help children see the action of cause and effect in their study of the social sciences. Another is to help them to realize the interdependence of man on man—the fundamental unity of the human race. These purposes do *not* dictate the fact material. They are not the basic purposes of the course, which is, first of all, a fact course to make children intelligent concerning commonly known persons, places, and events. They do serve, however, to make this fact course organic and help it to lead toward more advanced social science courses in which problem solving and recognition of human integrality may be the guiding principles.

The amount of time devoted to any one topic is roughly proportionate to its rank on our general list. Furthermore, those topics with high rank are bought in again and again, whenever the story permits. Thus far, we have almost been able to avoid even the mention of persons or places that are not on our original list. While we may not be able to follow this exclusion rigidly throughout the course, our tests will be solely on the topics shown to be important by our investigation. The stress given to each topic will continue, in both lesson and test material, to be in accordance with the importance of that topic.

The objective and statistical gathering of the topics on which our fact course is to be based, followed by a careful study as to the most important incidents to be taught under each topic, and the organizing of this material into a coherent narrative with certain underlying ideals, does not yet complete the scientific building of a fact course. The course must be adapted to the children for whom it is written, and we must have statistical evidence that it is so adapted.

Our material is prepared in mimeographed form, and presented to about 150 children in the grade for which the particular section of the course is being written. Thus far, we have been working only on material for our fifth grades, the history of the middle ages and the corresponding geography. We are correlating history and geography completely.

As an indication of what our material is like in its tentative, preliminary form, we are inserting here a portion of the chapter

on the Barbarian Invasions. We regret that space will not permit a reproduction of the many outline maps that accompany this material, on each of which there are a number of things for children to do. The following is presented, not as a model, nor as a completed piece of work, but as a sample of our first experimental material, to show roughly how the facts are being woven together:

Sec. 2—*The Barbarian Migrations*

When the Teutons and Romans first met, there were many long wars. The Romans learned that the barbarians were good fighters. After a time, the Roman generals decided to leave them alone. On the other hand, the Teutons also learned to respect the fighting power of their enemies—the Roman legions. They, too, decided to keep peace with the Roman armies. Now and then, barbarian chiefs were invited to Rome. They brought back tales of the wonderful palaces, of great cities. They told of rich feasts and of the exciting circuses of Rome.

In this way, many tribes of barbarians learned to look upon the Roman Empire with wonder and awe. They did not know that Rome was crumbling. They listened only to the stories of the strange things that their chiefs had seen.

For several hundred years then, the Romans and the Teutons were at peace with one another. The Romans were content to live on one side of the Rhine and Danube Rivers. The barbarians lived their wild life in the forests on the other side of these same rivers.

At about the year 350, a change began. The people who caused this change did not even live in Europe. They were the wild Huns, who belonged in Asia. They were wandering herders who roamed on the grassy plains beyond the Volga River near the Caspian Sea. (Find these places on Map 5.) We often call them "nomads," meaning "wanderers." They owned large herds of horses and sheep, which they pastured on the plains. They would stop in one place until all the grass was eaten off. Then they would move on to another place. Every one in the family rode on horseback—men, women and children. A Roman, who knew something about these Huns once said:

"There is not a person in the whole nation who cannot remain on his horse day and night. On horseback, they buy and sell, they take their meat and drink. They even recline on the narrow necks of their steeds, and sleep so deeply that they dream."

These Huns were fierce and warlike. Tribes of them often fought one another. From time to time tens of thousands of them would set out on a raid. They would spend years warring, burning, and destroying wherever they went. Sometimes they would ride hundreds of miles to the east, and attack the rich Chinese cities. Sometimes they spread out to the west, across the

Volga into Europe. It was one of these great westward raids of the Huns that helped to upset the Roman Empire.

On Map 5 you will see that the Ural Mountains run south *almost* to the salty Caspian Sea. Notice, however, that there is a little level gap between the mountains and the sea. The Huns, riding on horseback, did not like to cross the mountains, so they travelled into Europe through this small gap. Thousands and thousands of them poured through with their fine horses, their herds of sheep, and their clumsy wagons. They built small rafts and boats to cross the Volga River. They pushed westward into the fertile lands north of the Black Sea.

What about the Goths, however? They were living on just those plains, north of the Black Sea. As you know, these Goths, like all Teutons, were warlike people. Brave as they were, they did not care to stay and fight the terrible Huns. The Goths packed up all their belongings. Men, women, and children moved westward. On Map 5, you will see how they skirted along the eastern slopes of the Carpathian Mountains. Soon they reached the Danube River. Here these Teutons stopped and held a council. The Danube was the boundary of the Roman Empire and the barbarians knew it. They knew, too, that the Romans might drive them away, if they crossed without permission. But the Goths couldn't go back because the Huns were coming, as cruel and terrible as ever. Finally the chiefs of the tribes sent a messenger to the emperor at Rome. They asked permission to cross the Danube River. They promised to settle down quietly at farming. They also agreed to furnish soldiers for the Roman army. This latter offer pleased the emperor very much, for he was always glad to get more soldiers. Therefore, he gave the barbarians the right to cross the river. They built hundreds of rafts and canoes. Day and night they poured across the Danube. The Roman officers who were sent to watch the crossing, tried to count the barbarians, but they gave it up as a hopeless job. The officers, watching boat-load after boat-load cross, said that they might as well try to count the waves of the sea as the number of the barbarians.

These Goths were the first of the Teutons to push into the empire. They came peacefully, and tried to settle down quietly. But it was not long before some selfish Roman officials began to mistreat them. The emperor had said that he would give the new settlers free food while their first crops were growing. The officials, however, charged the settlers very high prices for the food. It is even said that some of the Goths had to sell their children as slaves in order to pay for meat and grain. Soon the barbarians became very angry. Instead of settling down, they attacked the Romans, and broke farther and farther into the empire.

At the same time the stream of the Huns was pushing onward toward the Rhine River. Everywhere the Teutons fled before them. Tribe after tribe started westward or southward—anywhere to get out of the path of the terrible raiders. Burgundians pushed against the Lombards and Franks. Other

tribes pushed against the Angles and Saxons. Tribe after tribe pressed against the Roman boundaries. Finally, they broke over and thousands of Teutons poured into the empire.

The Roman Empire, as you know, was really weak and helpless. It crumbled away as the Teutons pushed in. The barbarians wandered into Greece, into Gaul, into Italy, and plundered the imperial city of Rome itself. Others (you will find on your Map 6) wandered far across the Pyrenees Mountains, into Spain, and even into Africa. Remember, however, that they were not trying to conquer the Roman Empire. Most of them were chiefly interested in getting out of the way of the wilder tribes that were pushing against them.

We call this moving of the Teutonic tribes into the Roman Empire "The Migrations of the Teutons," or just, "The Great Migrations." (Migration means the moving of a large number of people.) Read more about them, and the lands that the barbarians conquered in at least one of the following books:

Harding—*The Story of Europe*—pages 123 through 141

Gordy—*American Beginnings in Europe*—pages 121 through 131

Woodburne and Moran—*Introduction to American History*—pages 105 through 111.

Before giving the children any of our material, we test their reading ability with the Burgess Picture Scale. If a child has only 2nd or 3rd-grade reading ability, his failure to comprehend our material will not indicate faulty construction on our part. Similarly, the success of our fifth-grade material on children of eighth-grade reading ability, will not indicate that we have prepared the material well. The records of children with fourth, fifth, and sixth-grade reading ability, however, will be very significant.

In order to know whether our material is "getting across," we have to prepare very full and objective tests. These tests usually contain four to six questions on each topic. All questions are so constructed as to have an answer which is definitely right or wrong. We are testing the children's knowledge of the topics we have been teaching, not their ability to express themselves. Opportunities are given during the course for the children to write compositions. But the tests of the course are for the sole purpose of measuring geographical and historical knowledge. Here is part of a test on the Middle Ages:

24. Some of the tall, fair-haired, blue-eyed barbarians were called:

- (Burgundians)
- (Romans)
- (Huns)
- (Egyptians)

25. The Teutons were

- (a fierce tribe that lived on the plains of Asia)
- (the tall, fair-haired barbarians who lived north of the Roman Empire)
- (the wild, wandering horsemen who drove the Goths into the Roman Empire)
- (the first inhabitants of Rome.)

26. "These people are small, but they are very fierce and warlike. Their faces are broad and their noses are very flat. Their eyes are set at a slant, and their hair is coarse and black. They live in tents or in dirty huts. They drive their sheep and horses from one part of the plains to another, looking for grass. They ride on horseback, day in and day out, so that they are bow-legged. When they do walk, they take waddling steps."

The writer was talking about the

- (Huns)
- (Teutons)
- (Romans)
- (Carthaginians)

27. The Saxons were

- (one of the Teutonic Tribes)
- (a tribe of people living near Rome)
- (the same as the Huns)
- (the people whom Caesar found in Briton)

28. "After a long walk through the forest, they reached a clear space. In this clearing there was a village of twenty or thirty huts. The huts were small and round. They were built of rough timber, more or less plastered with mud. They had roofs that were covered with straw."

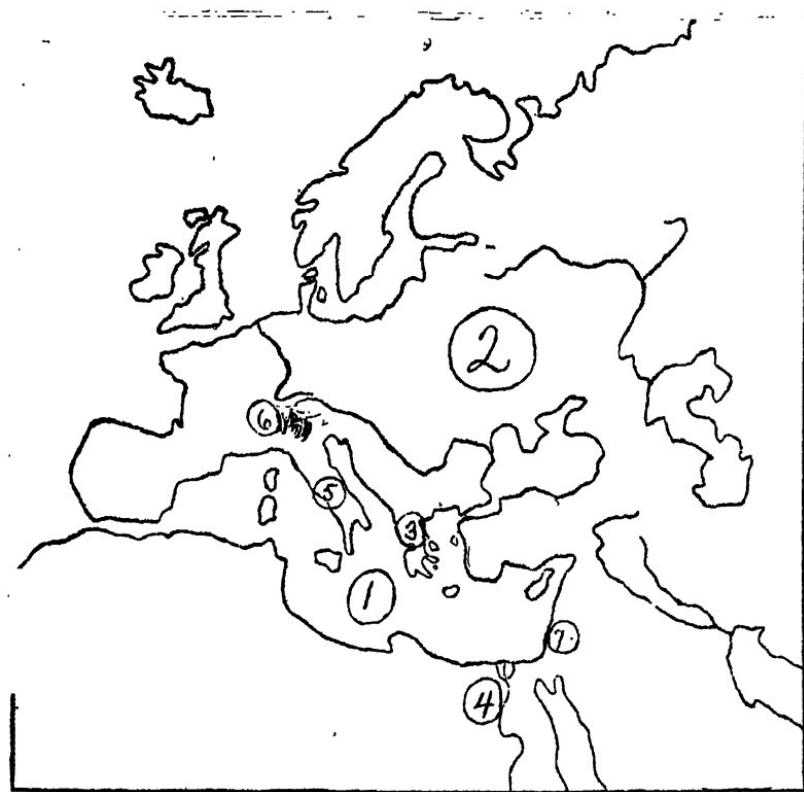
The huts belonged to

- (Latins)
- (Huns)
- (Teutons)
- (Roman Soldiers)

29. Some of the barbarians living just *outside* the Roman Empire were called:

- (Lombards)
- (Legions)
- (Swedes)
- (Huns)

30. The Saxons
(broke into the Roman Empire during the Great Migrations
(refused to go into the Roman Empire
(came from Asia in about the year 350
(fought with Hannibal against the Romans
31. The Huns were
(tall, light-haired barbarians
(Latins living near Rome
(yellow-skinned, black-haired people, with slanting eyes
(gladiators who fought in Roman amphitheatres
32. Which of the following did the Teutonic barbarians use?
(stone hatchets
(pistols and guns
(small cannons
(spears and shields
33. The women of the Teutonic tribes often
(took care of the little patches of grain that were used
(went hunting with the men of the tribe
(wrote stories and poems
(lived lazy lives, doing nothing
34. The Lombards
(were all killed by the Huns
(were driven into the Roman Empire by the Huns
(became friends with the Huns
(invaded Spain and Africa
35. The barbarian peoples
(enjoyed fighting in battles
(thought that all wars were wrong
(were afraid to fight
(fought only when the Romans hired them to
36. Some of the barbarians living just *outside* the Roman Empire were called
(Carthaginians
(Americans
(Burgundians
(Egyptians
37. The barbarians spent much time
(hunting in the forests
(building stone houses
(working in stores and offices
(organizing well-drilled armies



TEST MAP 1A

The numbers on this map mark locations which you should know. In each of the following sentences the name of a place is left out. The number in the space tells you where to find what this place is. Find the same number on your map. Then write the name of the place in the blank space.

The large body of water south of Europe is the (1).....Sea.

This continent on which the Teutons lived is (2).....

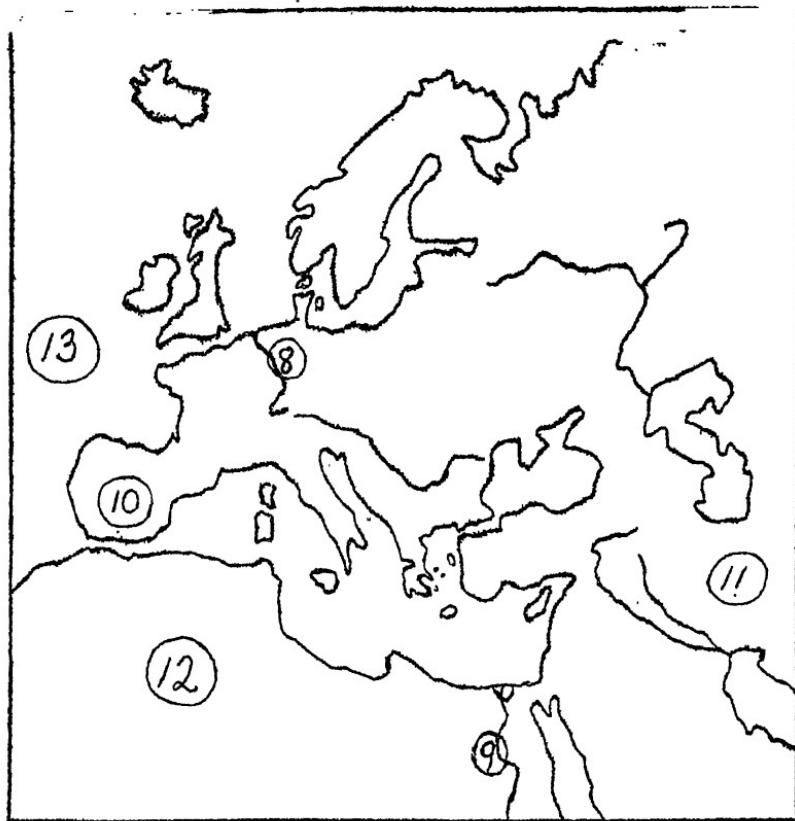
The little country whose ancient peoples built some of the most beautiful buildings in the world is (3).....

This country of pyramids and mummies is (4).....

The great city where the emperors lived and the gladiators fought is (5).....

The snowy mountain peaks through the passes of which Hannibal struggled with his war elephants are the (6).....Mts.

The sun-baked hillsides where the Jewish people found the Promised Land are (7).....



TEST MAP 2A

The river which once marked a northern boundary of the Roman Empire is the (8).....River.

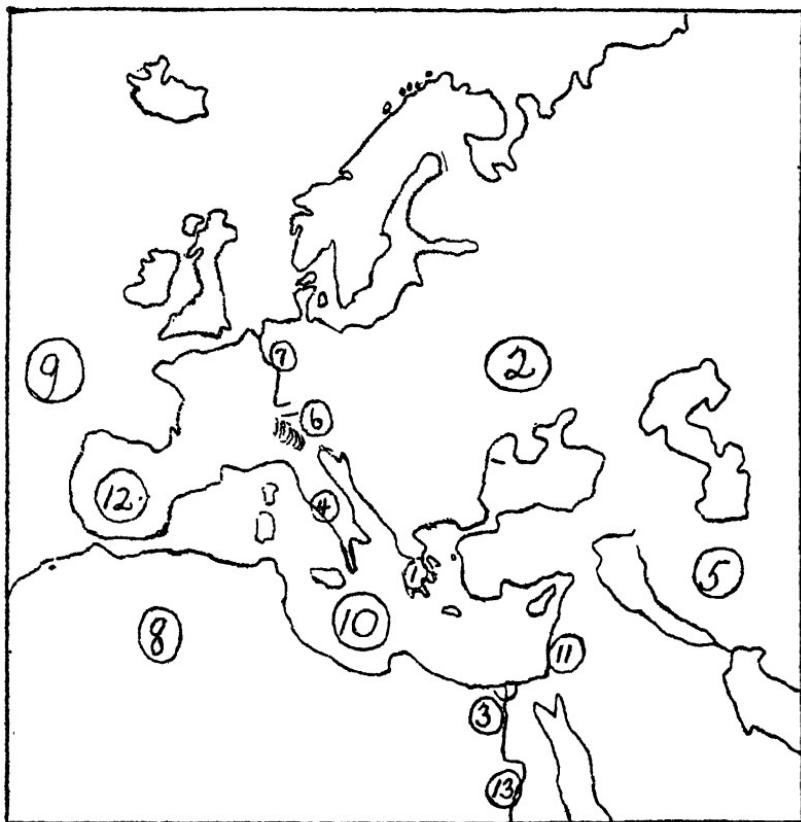
The river on the banks of which the Pharaohs built the pyramids is the (9).....River.

The southwestern point of Europe from which Hannibal set out on his march to Rome is (10).....

The continent on whose grassy plains the Huns pastured their flocks is (11).....

The continent on whose northern borders we find Egypt and Carthage is (12).....

The ocean west of Europe on whose stormy waters the Romans feared to venture is the (13).....Ocean.



TEST MAP 1B

The numbers on this map mark locations which you should know. Find each number on the map, and write the name of the place it marks in the proper blank space.

This country is (1).....

This continent is (2).....

This country is (3).....

This city is (4).....

This continent is (5).....

These are the (6).....Mountains.

This is the (7).....River.

This continent is (8).....

This is the (9).....Ocean.

- This is the (10).....Sea.
This land is (11).....
This country is (12).....
This is the (13).....River.

A careful record is being kept of children's results in these tests. In a large ledger the names of the children, grouped according to reading grades, are listed across the top of the pages. Down the left margins of the pages are the numbers of the test questions. Under each child's name and after each question number is checked the child's response to the question, as right or wrong.

From this record we can ascertain two things: If most questions on any one topic are wrongly answered by many children, we have presented the topic poorly. If several questions on one topic are answered correctly by most children, but one or two questions on the topic are wrongly answered in many cases, the indication is that these questions are not well stated.

As our record becomes complete on each topic, we shall revise our material as indicated by the test results, and try out the revised copy.

In this way we are determining experimentally *how* to present the fact course, after having determined by an objective investigation what the course should contain. It is a serious attempt to apply the essentials of scientific curriculum-building to the making of a basic fact course in history and geography.

CHAPTER VII

EDUCATIONAL ECONOMY IN THE REORGANIZATION OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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In the reorganization of the social studies which has been in progress in the University of Chicago High School during the last five years one of the major objectives held constantly in view has been the promotion of economy in education. This objective has been a controlling factor in the organization of courses and the preparation of material, as well as in experiments which have had for their end improvements in the technique of teaching. This paper will be confined primarily to the reorganization phase of the undertaking, with brief reference to those phases of methodology intimately involved in it.

So far as our efforts relate to the organization of material, then, the result is summed up in the following four-year program of courses: (1) "Community-Life English"—a unified course composed of social-science and English materials and comprising an introduction to the study of society; (2) "Survey of Civilization"—a course in history, covering, roughly, the period from barbarism to the middle of the eighteenth century and consisting of a series of cross-sectional studies of the great movements and civilizations of the past; (3) "Modern History"—a combination course in American and European history, covering, approximately, the events of the last one hundred and seventy-five years; and (4) "Modern Problems"—a course in modern society, in which chief stress is laid upon the economic and political principles which enter into present-day human association. This program, with its two years of history and two years of modern society, seems to comprise an economical arrangement of the material with which high-school boys and girls should become familiar in order to understand the world in which they live and in order to play their parts well in that world.

This sequence of social studies has been planned with the thought that it should be required of all pupils for graduation from the high school. No subject, of course, should be required of *all* pupils which *all* pupils do not require. Most American educators, for example, would not require all pupils to study Latin, because all pupils will not need to use Latin; in all probability, however, they would require all pupils to study English, because all pupils need to use English. In like manner, since all American boys and girls are citizens, courses which have as their main goal the making of good citizens should be required of all—subject to the condition, of course, that the topics which enter into them are of general worth or value for training in citizenship. In the selection of the topics which comprise the foregoing courses this standard of general worth, or value, has been the criterion to which all material has been subjected before incorporation.

In the Community-Life English course, for example, no topic has been included which is not of direct or indirect concern to all normal boys and girls; for any phase of life in which the great mass of people play a part is held to be of present or future concern to the great mass of boys and girls. Thus, the first main division of the course centers about "Group Life" and includes as its individual units or topics "Myself and Others," "The Family," "The School," "The Church," and "The Community." Since human life is always group life, a division of this sort is of concern to all human beings. More particularly, since the normal boy and girl plays a part in, or at least is greatly affected by, the home, the school, the church, and the local community in which he resides, these topics are of importance to all pupils. In like manner, all are concerned by the topics which are embraced in the second main division of the course, "Problems of the Community":—"Immigration," "Health," "Protection," "Recreation," "Civic Beauty," "The Handicapped." The relation to the children of the community of the last two main divisions of the course—"Industrial Society" and "Government and Political Parties"—is obvious, for with negligible exceptions all will eventually become workers and all will become partners in the business of government. Community-Life English, in short, is composed of topics

which not only concern pupils, but which are more or less closely related to their experience. This phase has been explained in another place:

"It is apparent that these topics all deal with matters which are of concern to boys and girls, although they may not at first be conscious of the fact. In addition, they all relate to things with which pupils have had some experience. For example, boys and girls, like older people, are dependent upon others for much that makes life worth while. With few exceptions, they have lived since birth as members of families. Usually, from the age of six on, they have spent a large portion of their time in school. While they may not have joined a church, most of them have at some time come under its influence in the Sunday school or in connection with its other activities. All their lives they have been members of a community, sharing its opportunities, and affected by its problems. By the time they reach junior-high-school age, some of them have come into direct contact with the world of work, and most of them have begun to think about an occupation. Even in the realm of government they have usually had some experience, although this experience may be limited to the use of the streets and the parks, to the handling of postage stamps and money, or to the seeing of firemen and street cleaners at their accustomed tasks."¹

The content of Community-Life English, then, has been determined by subjecting each topic to the criterion that only material which has value to normal children should be included in the course. In selecting the minimal essentials in the other three courses in the sequence, a similar effort has been made to apply rigorously but without pedantic narrowness the same severe test.²

The effort to promote educational economy in our reorganization of the social studies has not been limited to a critical selection of the minimal essentials of the various courses. In addition, there has been an attempt to lighten the burden of school administrators by demonstrating a practical way of reducing the load on the cur-

¹"Opportunities for Correlation between Community Life and English," *School Review* (March, 1922), vol. XXX, pp. 176-177. Details of the administration and content of the course in Community-Life English, as well as a description of methods of instruction which are employed, will be found in a series of articles published under the title given above in the *School Review*, January to March, 1922.

²Owing to limitations in space, it is impossible to give the content of the courses in Survey of Civilization and Modern History. Readers who are interested will find this material in A. F. Barnard's "Survey of Civilization" and in my "Course in Modern History;" these articles were published in *Studies in Secondary Education*, vol. I, University of Chicago High School (January, 1923). Cf. also my "Two-Year Sequence in History," *op. cit.* and my "Attainable Program of Social Studies for the High School," *Historical Outlook* (December, 1922), vol. XIII, pp. 353-356.

riculum instead of increasing administrative difficulties by insisting on additional courses. This purpose is a partial explanation of our experiments in the correlation and combination of English and social science which have been in progress during the last five years. In order to evaluate these experiments properly it is necessary at this point to consider briefly the teaching of English in the schools.

However teachers may differ in their opinion as to what English is and what is involved in its study, all will agree that, looked at in the large, instruction in English has two phases: first, the reading phase, and second, the expressional or composition phase. The reading phase, as traditionally interpreted, consists in acquainting boys and girls with that body of literature ordinarily described as the classics. The expressional phase, especially in written form, has frequently centered upon the production of imaginative themes. During late years there have been indications that teachers of English regard these interpretations as inadequate; that they feel that the reading phase of English should include selections from all types of worthy literature; and that they believe that instruction in the use of the vernacular may profitably include all forms of oral and written expression.

It is this conception of English which has guided our experiments in the combination and correlation of the subject with the social studies. Instruction in the use of the mother tongue is deemed to have as its chief goal the cultivation of the power and practice of clear, effective, and fluent expression. It is believed that it is impossible to realize this goal if instruction is limited to the confines of the English classroom; that only in so far as clearness and fluency in oral and written expression are demanded in all classrooms will such instruction really function. In other words, it is held that boys and girls will ordinarily acquire a mastery of the vernacular only when, and if, constant and persevering attention is paid to their habits of speech and writing in courses other than those devoted solely to the teaching of English. In so far as instruction in English is concerned with the inculcation of right habits of expression the problem then is regarded as one which concerns the school as a whole, not a single department in the

school. It follows, naturally, that if each department does its part in making correct habits of speech and writing habitual, the time now required for such instruction by departments of English can be reduced and educational economy can thereby be promoted.

These views explain in part the emphasis placed upon the expressional side of the work in all courses in the University of Chicago High School. In the teaching of the social studies attention is given throughout the year to proper methods of making outlines, taking notes, and organizing material. Such elements of social courtesy as the indication of sentence and paragraph units, and the observance of the ordinary rules of punctuation, grammar, and capitalization are insisted upon. Papers which come to the teacher in careless and incorrect form are regarded as unacceptable and are returned for rewriting. In some instances, pupils have been required to rewrite papers as many as four or five times because of errors in English. These instances, however, are exceptional; the return of a paper because of violations of the ordinary decencies in expression usually results in rapid improvement, especially in the case of mistakes due to carelessness.

Training in oral expression also constitutes an important feature of the work in all courses. While the social-science classroom is looked upon primarily as a laboratory and therefore as a place for study, there are times when oral expression has the right of way. The usual practice at these times is for pupils to stand before the class and present their understanding of a topic in a well-organized floor-talk. When this plan was first introduced—some five years ago—many of the pupils had difficulty in speaking upon a subject in an effective way for as long as two minutes; at the present time it is not uncommon for juniors and seniors to be able to discuss a topic in floor-talks of from ten to twenty minutes. Instruction in this work includes such items as organization of material, clearness of enunciation, correct standing position, avoidance of pitfalls of speech, and pleasing address and presentation.

In this connection it should be noted, finally, that insistence upon clarity of expression is productive of clarity of thought. It is no exaggeration to say that an inability to explain a matter clearly usually indicates a lack of clearness of comprehension. Cer-

tainly, to reverse the statement, a convincing proof of a pupil's mastery of a topic is his power to explain it clearly to some one else. Stress on this matter is regarded as essential, then, not merely because it is valuable as instruction in English, but because it constitutes a vital phase of the learning process. It, too, promotes economy in education.

In so far as suitable material is available, wide reading is encouraged and provided for in all our courses in the social studies. In the history classes, for example, the work is carried on almost wholly by the library method. At the beginning of the study of a topic each pupil is given as a guide for work mimeographed sheets containing a list of the minimal essentials, suggestions for supplementary projects, and a wide list of reading references. These references include citations to standard textbooks, extensive histories, biographies, contemporary narratives, orations, and historical novels. Although the opportunity is limited, owing to the paucity of such appropriate reading material, use is also made of poems and dramas. Among the references for the study of the slavery controversy, for instance, are speeches by Lincoln, Douglas, and Webster; novels such as Stowe's *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, Churchill's *The Crisis*, Johnston's *The Long Roll*; contemporary narratives like Chestnut's *A Diary of Dixie*, Schurz's *Reminiscences*, Dawson's *A Confederate Girl's Diary*; selections from such poems as Lowell's *Biglow Papers* and Whittier's *Voices of Freedom*; and a drama like Drinkwater's *Abraham Lincoln*. This arrangement, it will be seen, tends not only to vitalize the work in history, but also to promote in a practical way correlation with the reading phase of English.

The opportunity for educational economy has proved to be greatest in the course in Community-Life English. This course, as already stated, is an introductory study of society which provides an abundance of material suitable for instruction in both the reading and expressional phases of English. So satisfactory from the standpoint of both civics and English has it proved that for four years it has served as a combination course in the two subjects. This arrangement has resulted in the saving of a year of instructional time. In addition, it has enriched the work in both

English and civics. A brief examination of the character of the reading and instruction which obtains in most traditional courses in English and in civics will help to clarify this last statement.

The reading in the traditional English course is usually centered upon the classics and includes in general only imaginative selections—poems, dramas, and novels—with now and then an essay or an oration. With occasional exceptions the fields of travel, history, biography, and science are untouched. In such courses, as a rule, emphasis is placed upon literary form rather than upon content, under the mistaken notion that this is the way to develop an appreciation or liking for belles-lettres. The result may be gauged by the indifference to the classics which appears in the voluntary reading of the average boy or girl, young man or young woman, who has been introduced to the great literary masterpieces by the analytical or anatomical method. Those who doubt that this indifference exists need only stand at the counter of a public library and note the books in demand.

The reading prescribed in the majority of civics courses is equally unproductive. Here the material provided is almost wholly of the factual or informational sort found in the average textbook; in many instances, the reading is limited to the text. In most of these books the treatment of topics consists largely of abstractions and generalizations. Naturally, when supplementary material is so restricted, the study of civics, so far as reading is concerned, tends to become like the desert and its real significance remains too often quite unintelligible to the average boy or girl.

Now, whatever the value of an analytical study of the classics may be—and that there is value for advanced pupils in such a study will scarcely be questioned—and whatever the utility of an abstract discussion of civics may be—and of its value one may entertain serious doubts—this type of instruction and material should not play a dominant part in the instruction of boys and girls of junior-high-school age and interests. During these years, if pupils are to become lovers of good literature, books, as Herbert V. Coryell says, must “be read as wholes, loved as wholes, and lived with as wholes. They were not meant to be chopped up into small lesson sections and studied by the aid of a classical dictionary;

[even] students of literature will not be stirred deeply by any such procedure."³ In like manner, if reading is to contribute to make civics the vital and interesting subject it should be, it should consist of an abundant supply of concrete descriptive and illuminative material.

The meeting of this two-fold need in English and in civics has been an ever-present purpose in planning the readings for Community-Life English. When pupils begin the study of a major topic in the course, they are given an extensive book-list, containing from fifty to two hundred titles, each of which throws some light on the theme to be studied. These references are grouped in three large categories. The first of these, called study references, is made up of the type of material ordinarily used to supplement the civics text—parallel text accounts, pamphlets, bulletins, and detailed expository and descriptive discussions. The second consists of selections from the more graphic and interesting works in biography, history, travel, and essay. The third group, styled imaginative literature, is composed of novels, short stories, poems, and plays which illustrate the topic in question.

In the study of a topic like immigration, for example, the information which is obtained from the text and references like Orth's *Our Foreigners* and DuPuy's *Uncle Sam's Modern Miracles* is supplemented by the concrete descriptions of immigrant experiences contained in books like Bok's *The Americanization of Edward Bok*, Panunzio's *The Soul of an Immigrant*, Antin's *The Promised Land*, McClure's *My Autobiography*, Riis' *The Making of an American*, and Steiner's *From Alien to Citizen*. Added to readings like these are the vivid portrayals of the dreams and hardships, victories and defeats, of the foreign-born as pictured in such stories, poems, and plays as Edith Miniter's *Our Naputski Neighbors*, Myra Kelly's *Little Aliens*, Willa Cather's *My Antonia*, Robert Schaufler's *Scum o' the Earth*, Daniel Henderson's *The Alien*, and Israel Zangwill's *The Melting Pot*. The boy or girl who has studied immigration in this manner not only finds it vital and interesting, but also as

³*The Outlook* (February 1, 1922), Vol. CXXXI, p. 189. Mr. Coryell's article, "Killing the Classics," should be read by all teachers who love worthy literature.

a rule is awakened to an intelligent and sympathetic attitude upon the subject.

The course has been successful in stimulating the reading of pupils and in cultivating in them a liking for good literature. In the last semester for which the records are available (February to June, 1922), the minimal number of pages read by any pupil in an eighth-grade class containing twenty-six boys and girls, was 2,503, the maximal was 17,249, the median was 4,674.5, and the average was 5,080.8.⁴ This reading, it should be remembered, was done during a single semester of seventeen weeks. Since the pupils are told that the requirement in reading will be met if they give an average of half an hour a day outside of class to the titles on the book-list, it is apparent that the bulk of their reading is of a voluntary nature.

What pupils do when entirely free from the direct influence of the school, however, affords the best evidence of its effect or non-effect upon their tastes. For this reason the following incident is pertinent. During a recent vacation of eight or ten days (preceding which nothing had been said about reading) all but one of a class of twenty-five pupils read from two hundred to twenty-five hundred pages each; the average per pupil was about eight hundred pages. Most of this reading was in worth-while literature: among the titles reported were Thackeray's *Vanity Fair*, Kipling's *The Light that Failed*, Osborne's *Within Prison Walls*, Eliot's *Romola*, Dumas' *The Count of Monte Cristo*, Porter's *Scottish Chiefs*, Dickens' *Oliver Twist*, Goldsmith's *The Vicar of Wakefield* and Hugo's *Les Misérables*. Although this result cannot be attributed solely to the stimulus furnished by Community-Life English, the evidence seems to indicate a connection between the two. With two exceptions all of the books named above were on the book-lists and all had been the subject of enthusiastic comment by members of the class. The boy who confessed that before he took the course the only books he cared for "were cheap books that were utterly useless," but who found during the year that

⁴For detailed statistics of the reading of various classes since the experiment was begun, see my "Opportunities for Correlation between Community Life and English," *School Review* (January, 1922), Vol. XXX, pp. 31-35.

other books were "very interesting" is not the only instance of a pupil's saying, as he did, "I am glad I have developed this taste."

In the expressional side of the work, the results secured from Community-Life English have proved equally encouraging. Pupils who have found it hard to talk or write on the subjects ordinarily suggested in traditional English classes have had little difficulty as a rule in finding "something to say" on social-science topics. The reason for this is not obscure: everyone is interested in things which concern him and with which he has had experience. As pointed out earlier, the topics which enter into Community-Life English are of this type; they are well suited, therefore, for composition purposes. If a pupil feels that the members of the class are genuinely interested in what he has to contribute (and they are likely to be interested if he really has something to contribute), and if he knows that he has something to contribute (and this is likely to be the case if he has had experience in the topic or has read widely upon it), the composition problem will in large part be solved; for true expression always results if the speaker or writer has a social purpose and confronts a genuine audience situation.

In fact, when the significance of social-science material is brought home to boys and girls, it will be found productive of expression. Its suitability for developing skill in exposition, description, and argumentation is obvious. It has shown its value in equal degree in those forms of composition sometimes called 'imaginative' or (mistakenly) 'creative'—poems, plays, essays, and short stories. The following themes, slightly edited for the correction of obvious errors, may serve as examples of the work of the pupils. In some cases it has been impossible, owing to lack of space, to include the whole composition. The first theme was written in connection with the study of the family.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT: THE IDEAL FATHER

Whenever I think of Mr. Roosevelt, I think of him more as a father than I do as a statesman, an author, or a hunter.

Mr. Roosevelt always thought first of his family and what would be best for them. His main thought dwelled with his family constantly and whenever

he was separated from them he wrote them letters such as anyone would be proud to receive.

He was never too dignified nor too busy to notice children. They were to him the most precious things on earth, and whether they were alley youngsters from the slums or the children of multi-millionaires, he was always interested in their doings and ready to join them in play if they asked him. He would play with all children as one of them, and if they regarded him as superior to themselves he felt hurt. One of his children's greatest pleasures was waiting with ammunition until their father came upstairs at night and then showering him with pillows. After this, they were certain that he would play with them, or read, or do whatever they wanted him to do until bedtime. Through reading and telling them tales of the jungle, the west, and hunting, he developed in the boys a love of all nature. It was never beneath him to play tag over the haystacks at Sagamore Hill, or run races, or go head over heels down a hill. At one time he even acted in a vaudeville that the children gave in the old barn.

He had the highest regard for his family and tried always to do what was best for them. He never allowed wine at the table, when the children were present, except on Thanksgiving or Christmas, because he didn't think it best for the children. I don't mean that he spoiled his children, because that was what he didn't do. If they were naughty or quarreled or disobeyed their parents, they got what they deserved. He brought his children up to be fine, clean, and wholesome men and women. All of the boys fought in the war in France, while the girls worked in various ways here in America.

Altogether Mr. Roosevelt can well be used as the idol and the pattern of all American fathers.

As an illustration of the way in which the wide reading in the course is of value in developing skill in simple literary criticism, the following extract from a pupil's theme—reproduced without the slightest alteration—has interest; unfortunately, lack of space prevents the printing of the entire composition. It was written in connection with the study of the topic "Protection."

THE DETECTIVE IN FICTION

I suppose all who have read the series of detective stories exploiting Sherlock Holmes will agree with me that he is perhaps the best of fiction detectives. Of course the fluency of Conan Doyle's literary style has much to do with the fascination of his creation. Yet aside from this, Doyle's hero has many qualities to recommend him. In the first place, Sherlock Holmes is more natural and human than his fellow sleuths. Many fiction detectives are more like Hindoo magicians than common, ordinary mortals. Secondly, Sherlock Holmes stands forth in prominence because his creator has not muddled

him up with any silly romances. Romances are all right in their place, in a love story, but they are abominable in a detective story except, perhaps as sub-plots. And thirdly, Sherlock Holmes is a splendid detective because he knows how to keep his mouth closed. A great many fiction detectives are responsible for most of the "conversation" in their respective books. An over-loquacious detective is as bad as a love-sick one. Hamlet could get up and soliloquize for a page or two on whether "to be or not to be" and get away with it, but a detective can't.....

The reader of fiction may always take it for granted that the many initial clues will lead to nothing. But the real detectives often solve cases from early clues. Few detective stories are written in which the first clues are really valuable for the simple reason that the readers have been so trained that they would be terribly angry with themselves and the author if the first clues should turn the trick. Those who read detective stories must therefore read of the sleuth whom the author purposely keeps in suspense until the last page. The reason for my great admiration of Sherlock Holmes is because he is one of few detectives who works his way up faithfully from early clues. Unlike most of the detectives in fiction he solves the mystery step by step from the first clue instead of, as in most detective stories, step by banister. For the detective of fiction, with but few exceptions, takes one step, takes two steps and then slides back down the "suspense banister" to where he started.

It is interesting to compare one detective in fiction with another; it is interesting to compare the fiction detective with the real detective; it is interesting to note that some detective stories are famous largely because of the detective who solves the case; but after all it is the case rather than the detective that makes for interest, for a case of deeply entangled mystery arouses tense excitement regardless as to how or by whom it is being unravelled.

The topic of "industry" has proved especially valuable for composition purposes. Even the pupils who seldom become enthusiastic over anything are with rare exceptions aroused to interest and effort here. Indications of this interest can be seen in the themes below. The first two were written by pupils of mediocre rank; the third by one who stands somewhat higher. Space permits the printing of only a short passage from each theme. Different types of themes have been selected so as to illustrate the suitability of social-science material for various forms of expression. The little play, of which only the opening lines are given, was so enthusiastically received by the class that it was later staged by several of the pupils as an after-school entertainment.

POTTERY

What would the housewife of today do without dishes? Would she cook the food and demand that her husband eat it out of the frying pan? Or would she flounder about and say she couldn't possibly live without dishes? What did primitive man do before pottery was discovered? He received his roasted meat in chunks, like the Indian of yesterday, and ate it without the use of dishes or forks.

But one day many, many years ago someone saw a mass of clay with a small stream of water filtering through it. By chance this mass of clay caught his eye and he picked up a bit to see what it was. He found that it was soft and could be easily moulded. He fashioned a rude cup from it and placed it on a stone, laughing at what fate had done. A day or two later he passed near by and saw his cup still there, unmarred and dry. He picked it up and filled it with water. Joy! the water did not leak. He rushed to the camp and told of his discovery. Many years later, a clay pot was dropped, by accident, into the fire. After the fire had been demolished, the pot was found, much harder than the old kind. This, too, was a great discovery and after this time, food could be cooked directly on the fire.

Pottery has developed to such a degree that today we find fine dishes on the table for daily use. To make pots, vases, etc., modern potters still employ the old methods. This pottery is sturdier and, although not quite as graceful as the table dishes, it is in every way as beautiful....

CHILDREN OF TOIL

CHARACTERS

Mrs. Donavan.....the mother
Mary Ellen.....her daughter
Nora.....another daughter
The Brat.....Nora's son

SCENE

A room in the basement of a frame shack. At center back is a door from which can be seen three or four steps leading up to sidewalk. At the right of the door is a large window that lets in but feeble light, it is so dirty. To the left of door is a small table on which is a mouldy crust of bread, a few scraps of meat, and a boy's red flannel shirt. Before the window is a shake-down bed seemingly covered with all the clothing and rags in the family. In the middle of the room is a small table on which is a smoky kerosene lamp and a small family Bible. At the right is a door leading to another basement room. To the left of the table is a large wooden wash-tub from which comes a cloud of steam. Against the wall at left, about the center of the room, is a two burner oil stove on which is a large boiler. Two or three chairs are standing about the room. The air is steamy and there is

a musty odor. Strung at the right back is a rope on which clothes are drying.

It is late afternoon in the early part of December.

Mrs. Donavan is bending over the wash-tub, rubbing clothes. She is a small, thin, woman whose hair is scraggling from under a night-cap giving her a slouchy appearance. In the corner of her right eye is a wart which gives her a sinister look. At the table, reading a soiled fashion magazine, Mary Ellen, her daughter, is sitting. She is eighteen years of age, a coarse, loosely built girl.

Mary E.—Ma, (waits for answer) O ma! (still no answer) Ain't this a swell dress? (Gets up and shows her mother a picture in the magazine.)

Mrs. D.—(without looking) Shore an' is it the likes of you to be lookin' at drisses when you poor ould mither is scrubbin' of her hands off? But then, ye're all the same. John, Baby, Nora, and now you. Shore an' if it wasn't fer yere mither where'd ye be now? An' whin I was your age, wasn't it the likes of me to take care of me tin brithers and sisters, much less look at drisses in a magazine that cost twice as much as a loaf of bread. Go 'long wid yere foolishness! For t'ree months now ye ain't brought me in a cint.

Mary E.—(shrugs her shoulders, She is apparently used to threats such as this and knows this story by heart. She goes back to her reading. Suddenly she gets an idea). Ma! O Ma! Gimme a quarter?

Mrs. D.—Andade ye'll not git anither cent from me, now, and didn't I just end tellin' ye ye'd not git a cent or a bite till ye found a job?

WHAT IS SUCCESS?

It's doing your job the best you can
And being just to your fellowman;
It's making money, but holding friends,
And staying true to your aims and ends;
It's figuring how and learning why,
And looking forward and thinking high;
It's being clean and playing fair;
It's laughing lightly at Dame Despair;
It's looking up at the stars above,
And drinking deeply of life and love;
It's struggling on with the will to win,
But taking loss with a cheerful grin;
It's sharing sorrow and worth and mirth
And making better this good old earth;
Its serving, striving, through strain and stress,
It's doing your noblest—that's Success!

In the reorganization of the social studies in the University of Chicago High School educational economy has been a constant and continuous consideration. In the four-year sequence which is now provided, two years—the second and third—are devoted primarily to history; during these two years economic and social matters receive chief stress. The other two years—the first and the fourth—are given to the study of the social sciences other than history; in this study, however, a large use is made of historical material. In each course an effort is made to correlate the work with English: correct oral and written expression is looked upon as essential. Economy in education seems to be promoted by this four-year sequence in the following ways: first, by the combination of English and social science in the introductory course in Community Life, a combination which enriches both subjects and in addition saves a year of instructional time; second, by the exclusion of unimportant data from the minimal essentials which comprise the units of each course; third, by the attention given to matters ordinarily left to the care of the English Department, a practice which, from the standpoint of English, is wasteful in its failure to make correct expression habitual and, from the standpoint of social science, is wasteful in its non-insistence on that clarity of thought which obtains only when there is clarity of expression.

CHAPTER VIII

A PROGRAM FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

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Ten years ago the term 'social studies' had little, if any, definite connotation. Then, in 1915, came the bulletin on "Community Civics," followed two years later by the report on the "Teaching of the Social Studies." These bulletins aroused much discussion and no little constructive experimentation. Before this, history, with smatterings of incidental geography and government, had filled the entire field. Within the past ten years, however, various groups have made their demands on "history," each desirous of lopping off a more or less definite sector for itself. The first to attack was the political scientist who desired his own place in the curriculum. He was followed by the economist, the sociologist, and the geographer. Most of these attacks have come from the entrenched positions of nationally organized associations. Recently each of these groups has put forward its program for the schools. The chief points of difference with these specialists lie in the selection of subject matter and in emphasis. Each in his own way is a special pleader for his own subject. The problem is further complicated by the attack of educators and psychologists on the method of teaching these subjects, while the administrator waits with what resignation he can command, hoping that some semblance of order will come out of all this disagreement and confusion.

This brief introductory statement is necessary if one is to understand the conditions out of which the need has arisen for a constructive program in the field of the social studies. At the outset I wish to make my position clear, namely, that I am not so much interested in "the social studies" as in "a social science." I am not one of those who believe in history or civics or geography

or any subject for its own sake. As a teacher of youth I do not have the specialist's interest in any of these subjects of study. I want to see the various tributaries—history, geography, civics, economics, sociology—each contributing to one main stream. This means a reorganization of worth-while materials in all these fields. Some of us have felt for a long time that a large percentage of the details of history is valueless, that much of formal geography is equally worthless, and that altogether too large an amount of the old instruction in government never has carried over into constructive citizenship.

Not only do we desire a reorganization of subject matter to meet the needs of the growing child, but we ever realize that he is growing, and that our method of approach in presenting further materials necessary for his growth is of the utmost importance. This is not the old controversial issue of materials vs. method. It is materials *and* method; the bow and the cord, "useless one without the other."

REORGANIZATION OF SUBJECT MATTER

Although my own contribution to this discussion lies primarily in the field of method, I should like to pause here to point out very briefly the materials of history, civics, and geography which I should attempt to fuse into a single or unit course for the junior-high-school grades.

Grade VII

History: The World to 1789.

Geography: The Mediterranean basin; Western Europe; early trade routes; Latin America and Eastern North America.

Civics: The significance of the attempts at self-government in the old world. The beginning of communities in the new world; colonial practices; local history.

Practice in group organization: Current events.

Grade VIII

History: The World since 1789. (The whole field viewed in relation to the United States.)

Geography: The Near and Far East; The new Europe and its expansion. Physical and industrial geography of the U. S. Civics: The growth of nationalism; the development of constitutional government; the march of democracy. How we are governed: city, state, and nation. Projects in citizenship; Current events.

Grade IX

History: A Survey of Modern World Relationships.

Geography: A World Survey; expanding commercial interests.

Civics: Elementary social, political and economic problems. Projects in citizenship. Current events.

(Note: Three-fifths of the present time allotment for these three subjects should be in double supervised study periods, and the balance single periods with each day of the week provided for. There should be a running-fire of citizenship projects or activities all through these grades.)

It will be recalled that the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship proposed for the Xth year a course in Modern World History with emphasis on political, social, and economic development. For the XIth grade this Committee would continue the conventional course in United States history and civics, thus leaving the XIIth grade open for The Problems of Democracy.

Most of the discussion aroused by this report has centered around matters of content and emphasis. It is the purpose of this article, however, to present the question of method and to point out the possibilities that lie in the adaptation of the project point of view as a method of approach in the teaching of these social studies.

As a teacher of history for many years I have come to feel that history is not doing for our young citizens what the Committee of Seven said history should do. That report, issued in 1899, has come to be looked upon by many of us as the 'Old Testament' of the history teacher. It contained much that was, and still is, excellent. For instance, under the caption of *Training for Citizenship* we note the following as objectives of history: "It is true

that any subject which aids the pupil to think correctly, to be accurate and painstaking, which awakens his interest in books and gives him resources within himself, in reality fits him for good and useful citizenship." "History cultivates the judgment by leading pupils to see the relation between cause and effect." "The power of gathering information is important . . . but the power of using information is of greater importance." "A no less important result of history study is the training which pupils receive in the handling of books." "History is also helpful in developing the scientific habit of thought." "The thoughtful teacher of experience will say that these prime requisites of wholesome education may in some measure be cultivated; and that when opportunity for comparative work is given in the later years historical-mindedness may be so developed as materially to influence the character and habits of the pupil."¹

"The thoughtful teacher of experience will say," in fact is saying, that these objectives, splendid in themselves in training citizens, are not realized from the study of history as it is generally taught in our high schools to-day. Dr. Tuell raises this very question in the opening words of the preface to her helpful and forward-looking book, *The Study of Nations*.² "History in the schools has recently been put on the defensive, challenged as a failure in its civic functions. Its established theory in the minds of its critics crumbles for lack of definite social purpose."

An Experiment in History Teaching

In this connection I wish to speak of an experiment in history teaching that we have been trying out at the Horace Mann School. It is a course in Modern European History (1815-1922), and the class is in the last year of the junior high school. We have taken as our objectives the citizenship concomitants of the Committee of Seven, as listed above, and our general method from John Dewey: "The true starting point of history is always some present-day

¹W. H. Kilpatrick. "What shall we seek from a history project?" *The Historical Outlook* June, 1922.

²Harriet E. Tuell, *The Study of Nations: An Experiment in Social Education* (Riverside Educational Monographs).

situation." Realizing that, if this method were followed, the class would not have the customary chart and guide in the form of the chronologically arranged text, the instructor outlined at the start for his own guidance the main forces at work during the period he was developing. It was his hope to leave definite impressions of these forces, which he listed in his record book as follows: (1) The Industrial Revolution, (2) The Growth of Nationalism, (3) The Expansion of Europe, (4) The March of Democracy, (5) The New Europe. First came a quick review of the leading events of the eighteenth century and these with dates were arranged in a chronological bird's-eye-view chart, with space reserved for the nineteenth and twentieth centuries to be filled in as the work progressed. A civic notebook was kept by each member of the class and this became the seed-bed of many of our projects. A special shelf was reserved for us in the library, and in addition to these reference books, the class subscribed to a current events bulletin, and used freely newspapers, weeklies, magazines, and several of the standard general reference works and encyclopaedias. Early in the year we organized in a parliamentary manner with chairman, secretary, and activities committees, determined by our needs. Then we pictured Europe as it was after the Congress of Vienna, and each student prepared a colored map of Europe in 1815.

THE METHOD OF ATTACK

With this as background we were ready to 'hop off.' The special method determined upon by the instructor was the project method of approach as advocated by Kilpatrick.³ Now, it is not my contention that we lived up to all the requirements or possibilities of the project method. We tried, however, in each case to get as large an amount of the essential four steps—"purposing, planning, execution, and judgment"—as possible into each project, and the more we succeeded in doing this, the better were our results.

The initial project required considerable 'setting of the scenery' on the part of the instructor, but the one finally determined

³W. H. Kilpatrick, "The project method," *Teachers College Record*, Sept., 1918.

upon was this: "The progress of labor and how it affects us today." This is as the class worded it. They gave as their reasons for this particular selection their desire to "understand something of the causes of the dispute between labor and capital," "the meaning of certain terms which they heard or came across in their reading," *e.g.*, collective bargaining, open-shop, injunction, I. W. W., Bolshevism, etc.; their natural desire to "comprehend the conversation at home" and to "understand the significance of the cartoons they saw in the newspapers and weeklies." In this particular case we followed the chronological method, beginning with the story of the wonderful inventions of the last of the eighteenth century. Their civic notebooks swelled with clippings on the labor problem; there was much open discussion in class; a cartoon was brought in each day, its significance explained and placed in the "cartoon corner." The teacher was astonished many times at their grasp of points at issue. They said they talked it over at home and read the newspapers and weeklies more. They told each other of good material they found. On almost any day eight or ten different sources, other than the text, were referred to by members of the class.

To be sure, this took time. I see by my record that we began this project on October 10 and finished it November 14. At the end of the work a committee was duly appointed to organize, in summary form, the material gathered in building up the project. This was mimeographed and each student was given a copy for her note-book. They called it their "irreducible minimum."

The next project entered an entirely different field, and one the instructor approached with certain tremblings of spirit: "Why is Ireland demanding Home Rule?" We had hardly started out when someone observed that many people in Ireland did not want Home Rule. So they reworded their project—a false plan, you see—and started in once more. We had not gone far when my fears were justified. Feeling ran high with some of the pupils, and comments were made on both sides of the question in no uncertain tones—a real social situation. After one of these outbursts the instructor at the next meeting of the class took the occasion to read Franklin's plea for harmony at the Constitutional Conven-

tion. He made no comment or preaching. But there was no question of its direct application. "Light, not heat" was placed upon our "Watch this spot!" board. The class rallied to the ideal; the social disapproval of the group was manifest whenever anyone broke out after that, and when we came to the end of the project they wished to carry it further with a good debate. A class discussion was held with the president in the chair to ascertain whether or not this could be done on the "Light, not heat" basis, and the "light" won. So speakers were chosen by the debating committee to defend the three aspects of the situation, present status, Home-Rule, and independence.

The test at the end of the work was this: "What are the possible solutions of the Irish question? Which do you favor and why?" Throughout the developing of this project the teacher had in mind bigger things than fact content. He was after tolerance, courteous tone of voice, balanced judgment, and open-mindedness, with convictions based on facts.

Another project which the class worked out this year was: "How was Switzerland able to maintain her neutrality during the World War?" In this last project a most interesting and natural discussion arose over the Swiss compulsory military system. Would it not be a good plan for the United States to adopt such a system? The class was fairly evenly divided, so each wing chose two champions and the debating committee arranged a meeting.

One day while this Switzerland project was under discussion a visitor remarked at the end of the hour: "I came in a little late, and although I have listened intently for nearly forty minutes, I do not know now whether this is a class in geography, history, or civics." I could not help him out much in giving him the proper label, but asked in my turn if the project could be answered without some study of the geography, history and government of Switzerland? At least we felt that they were all "grist to our mill;" and this points out, by the way, a perfectly natural and not a dragged-in correlation, a fusion, in fact, of materials from all three fields.

Other worth-while projects were proposed and carried through by the class before the end of the year. For example:

1. How did France become a permanent republic?
2. How did constitutional government come to England?
3. How did Italy become something more than "a geographical expression?"
4. Why is Japan one of the five leading nations of the League?
5. Is Canada a self-governing state?
6. Why is Poland demanding her "ancient rights and privileges?"
7. The League of Nations: What is it?

Many such pertinent questions as these, which bear directly upon the social, political, and economic phases of modern life, rise very naturally to the lips of pupils awake to present-day conditions. It is one of the chief duties of the teacher to stimulate these natural interests and then guide them intelligently. To be sure, the teacher himself should understand very definitely what he is driving at and where he is going. He should have so chartered the course that at the end of the year's work the class would have "covered essentials," although in no page-by-page fashion.

Some will criticize such teaching as this by saying it is a 'hit-or-miss' method; there will be 'chronological confusion' and 'no semblance of order in the assembling of historical data.'

Thorndike, speaking of the logical versus the psychological in history teaching, says: "It has, indeed, seemed indubitable to teachers as well as to writers of textbooks, that the student should begin where the country began. But what has seemed so sure is very questionable. The pupil actually begins with knowledge of the present condition of his own environment, plus a variable and chaotic acquaintance through talk and books, with facts located vaguely in other places and earlier times. Perhaps the story of the voyage of the parents of some pupil in the class should precede that of the voyage of Columbus."

"Chronological confusion" and "disordered historical data" come often enough to the best pupils of the best regulated classes taught in the old formal method—witness the position of history at the bottom of the list in the College Entrance Board examinations. Moreover, the chronological chart, referred to above, was devised so to arrange leading events and great movements that

their proper relationship would be seen, just as the mosaic, built up piece by piece, brings out at the end the completed figure.

It is also the opinion of educators that on the basis of "information" or "fact content" the sum total will be as great under this method, and will be so developed and arranged as to be more ready for use and consequently better retained in memory. The summary, or "irreducible minimum," built up at the end of each project, prevents the informational material from becoming scattered. This class was tested at the end of the year's work by an examination set by other instructors, and the "fact-content" measured up very satisfactorily with that of other classes, not taught by the project method, covering the same field.

Others object to this method on the ground that it takes a great deal of time both in class and in preparation on the part of the teacher. Both these statements are undoubtedly true. The experiment has shown, however, that as the work progresses the class comes to work more speedily. They grow more accustomed to using their historical tools, and we find out quite frequently how a tool used in solving one project is employed again in helping to fashion another. For example, they understood the meaning of the term "economic boycott" in their study of the League of Nations, because they had used that term in the project on the Progress of Labor. It was a very interesting thing to note their adaptability in using these cross-reference tools.

Others are skeptical about the use of such a method as this with the "average public school pupil." I have taught in public schools for fifteen years and have no fears on this particular point. The fact that in our cosmopolitan high schools the pupil body comes in contact more directly with a greater variety of outside interests than does the pupil body in an exclusive school, would be a distinct advantage for the former in arousing interest and in building on this interest. The fact that the method advocated would necessitate adequately trained teachers is not a valid argument against the method itself. This is an old complaint, and a real one, and our administrators are faced to-day, as never before, with the problem of securing properly trained teachers in the social studies field. Professor Parker makes the statement that it

will take four years of training in service in order to prepare teachers so that they can handle the project method.

The writer is aware that there is little that is new in this particular approach. Others have pointed out the distinction between the 'assimilative' and the 'cold storage' methods in history teaching. This is simply one experiment where the project has been used as a basis in the developing of a particular period in history. As an experiment it is open to criticisms and it welcomes them. After three years of careful open-minded observation of this method, it is my belief that the results justify the conclusion that as an educative process it is worth giving a wider application. It leads the pupils to purpose intelligently and then guides them in planning and executing the particular project in hand. They find out how to get the information they need in the natural way, while the classroom discussions and debates develop independent judgment and open-mindedness.

*Class Organization of a Project Studied in 1920: "The irreducible minimum"
"Why Japan is a 'world power' and what are her relations
with the United States?"*

I. Geography

- A. Position—just off the northern coast of China in the Pacific Ocean.
- B. Area—about size of California
- C. Surface
 - 1. Mountainous—volcanic origin
 - 2. Irregular coast line
 - 3. Numerous rivers

D. Principal Cities

- 1. Tokyo (capital)
- 2. Yokohama
- 3. Nagasaki

E. Industries

- 1. Agriculture
 - a. Rice
 - b. Tea
 - c. Camphor
 - d. Silk
- 2. Fishing
- 3. Mining
 - a. Small deposits of gold, silver, and copper
- 4. Manufacturing

II. National Characteristics

- A. Racial Stock (see history)
- B. Characteristics of race
 - 1. Patriotism almost a religion
 - 2. Very great sensitiveness on points of national and personal honor
 - 3. Resentment of any slights by Occidental nations
 - 4. Social and economic fellowship
 - 5. Politeness and good form
 - 6. Love of beauty
 - 7. Ability and willingness to adopt and adapt methods, ideas, institutions from other countries.
- C. Manners and Customs
 - 1. Dress
 - a. Kimono, national costume
 - 2. Homelife
 - a. Much is thought by Japanese of home and family
 - 3. Position of women
 - a. More respected and more rights granted to them since Japan's change

Religion

- 1. Shintoism
 - a. Reverence for ancestors and nation
 - b. The national and original religion
- 2. Buddhism
 - a. Code of morals
 - b. Introduced from India.
 - c. Religion of Common People
- 3. Confucianism
 - a. Code of morals
 - b. Introduced from China
 - c. Religion of higher class
- 4. Christianity
 - a. Introduced by Portuguese in 17th century

III. History to 1853

- A. Early Peoples—"A melting pot."
 - 1. Cave dwellers
 - a. Small and undersized
 - 2. "Hairy Ainu"
 - 3. Malay invasion—Yamato race
 - 4. Invasions from Korea and Northern China
- B. Feudal Wars
 - 1. Feudal Nobility
 - 2. One head, Mikado

- 3. Classes of People
 - a. Samurai—soldiers
 - b. Farmers
 - c. Peasants and laborers
 - 4. Shogun becomes real ruler
 - C. Coming of Dutch, Portuguese and Spanish in 17th Century
 - 1. Trade established
 - 2. Christianity introduced
 - a. Quarrels among religious sects
 - D. Shogun expels all foreigners
 - 1. Japan's sea wall—200 years
- IV. Japan from 1853 to the end of World War
- A. Coming of Commodore Perry
 - 1. Forced entrance
 - 2. Concessions of trade granted to other countries
 - 3. New ideas and customs brought by modern nations
 - a. New banking system
 - b. National currency
 - c. Education: modern system based on that of United States
 - d. New industries
 - e. Christianity re-introduced
 - B. Chino-Japanese War, 1894-1895
 - 1. Causes
 - a. Dispute over possession of Korea
 - 2. China defeated
 - 3. Results
 - a. Formosa to Japan
 - b. Korea independent
 - c. Beginning of Japanese expansion on Continent
 - C. Boxer Rebellion
 - 1. Japan helped other nations to suppress uprising in China
 - D. Russo-Japanese War
 - 1. Causes
 - a. Fear of Russian domination in the East
 - 2. Japan victorious on land and sea
 - 3. Treaty of Portsmouth
 - a. Japan gains Korea and one-half of Sakhalin and leases Liaotung Peninsula
 - E. Japan's Part in the World War
 - 1. Reasons for entering
 - a. Treaty with England
 - b. Revenge on Germany because of previous relations
 - c. To extend influence in China

2. Part played
 - a. Captured Kiauchau
 - b. Takes over Germany's lease on Shantung for 99 years
 - c. Supplied Russia with munitions
 - d. Troops in Siberia
3. Peace Conference
 - a. One of five leading nations
 - b. Opposed China for return of German territory
 - c. Japan holds mandate over former German possessions in lands north of the equator

V. Government of Japan

A. Remarks

1. Modelled after Government of German Empire
2. Not responsible
3. Influence of Elder Statesmen greater than that of Diet

B. Mikado—"Ruled for Ages Eternal"

Privy Council

Premier

Imperial Cabinet

Nine ministries like United States Cabinet

Representative Institutions

1. Upper House

Five classes of members

Nobles, scholars, largest tax payers

Elected in different ways for different periods of time

2. Lower House

Members elected by common vote

Number regulated by population

VI. Japan's Relations With the United States

A. Period of Friendship

1. Perry opens Japan

- a. Students to United States
- b. Missionaries to Japan
- c. Educational System from United States

2. Gentlemen's Agreement

B. Period of Mutual Distrust

1. Causes

- a. Immigration to Pacific Coast (California)
- b. Objection to Japan's policy in the Far East
- c. Fear that Japan will violate the Monroe Doctrine and that she has designs on Philippines and Hawaiian Islands.

C. Solutions

1. Morris-Shidehara agreement
 - a. No discrimination
 - b. Japanese Nationals shall be given equal rights as other aliens
 - c. Land laws shall be the same for all aliens
 - d. Japanese do not want American citizenship
2. Gentlemen's Agreement
 - a. Excludes all immigrants from Japan to United States and Hawaii except students and tourists
3. Suggestions of Frank A. Vanderlip
 - a. Japan must be dealt with carefully because of sensitiveness
 - b. Japan must have room to expand as it is not probable she will become an industrial nation
 - c. Nothing can be accomplished until there is a better mutual understanding between Japan and the United States

SPECIMEN CLASS REPORTS

The class was called to order in Room 305 on Friday, Feb. 6, 1920. The minutes of the previous meeting were read and approved. Copies of *Current Events* were given out. Then the committee, Ethel Kelly, Eleanor Lindsay, and Minnie Mehlin, who prepared the outline on the Russian project, made their report. The class did not like this report, as it was "too much like a teacher's outline," so they were instructed to do it over again and put in more definite facts. The comparative charts on the Governments of the United States, England, and France were collected. We discussed our new project and decided on the League of Nations, but did not come to a decision as to how to word it. For home work we were to mark in our copies of *Current Events* anything that was "grist to our mill," gather what material we could on the League of Nations, and think upon a wording for our new project.

Respectfully submitted,

NANCY WILSON, Sec'y.

The class was called to order in Room 306 on Thursday, Feb. 12, 1920, by the president. The minutes of the previous meeting were read and approved. We then voted on a name for our next project. From the list of: "What is the League of Nations and will it make the world safe for democracy?" "The League of Nations: What is it?" "Should America enter the League of Nations?" "The effect of the League of Nations on the world," we decided upon "The League of Nations: What is it?"

We discussed the method of going to work on this project and we decided to make out a chart. A copy of the "League of Nations Covenant" and the "New Map of Europe" was given to each girl. We then went over our

Current Events, seeing how many things there were in it about anything we are or have been working on. Mr. Hatch told us some interesting Lincoln stories. For home work we were to read over, "mull" over and write out the "gist" of the first five articles of the League of Nations. The class was dismissed at 1:20.

Respectfully submitted,

NANCY WILSON, Sec'y.

The class was called to order in Room 305 on Friday, March 5, 1920, by the president. The minutes of the previous meeting were read and approved. We discussed the form our League of Nations chart should take, and then whether we should have another history period a week. A motion was made that we should have another history period a week, and it was amended that it be the third period on Friday. The amendment was amended that we should have no home work for that extra period. The amendment and the amendment to the amendment were passed, and as the vote on the motion was a tie, the president cast the deciding vote in favor of the motion. A motion was made and passed that we send a delegation to Mr. Pearson concerning the extra period, two girls representing the majority and one from the minority. A motion was defeated that the chair appoint the three girls. We decided by vote to leave the selection of the delegation to Mr. Hatch, who said that the girls in favor of the motion that we have the extra period should choose their two delegates themselves and that the rest of the class should choose their representative. For home work we were to complete our writing out of the articles of the League of Nations and if possible to begin our charts. The class was dismissed at 2:00.

Respectfully submitted,

NANCY WILSON, Sec'y.

Two charts, one of the League of Nations Covenant and one on Comparative Governments, are exhibited to illustrate the work of the pupils. The latter chart formed a portion of the project: "How Did Constitutional Government Come to England?"

For one entire term this "Project Class in History"⁴ was observed regularly by my Teachers College class of mature students, composed for the great part of teachers of some experience and training in history. One object of this paper to record the reactions of this group of college observers and also the reaction of the pupils of the classes themselves.

⁴The method of setting the projects, the materials used, pupil charts and summaries, as well as typical answers to test questions are given in fuller detail in the November, 1920, issue of the *Teachers College Record*, Columbia University.

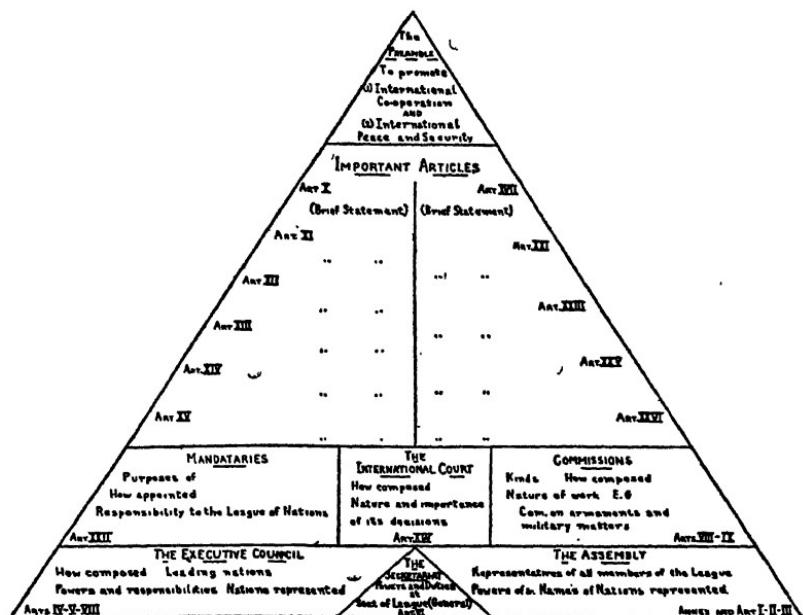


CHART OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS COVENANT

I asked both of these groups to give careful thought to this question: "What do you consider to be the good and the bad features of the project method?" The answers in all cases were handed in without any name attached. From the replies I have listed the following, avoiding unnecessary repetitions, but giving in their own words their conclusions for and against the project method as I have interpreted it in my teaching procedure with them.

I will first give the answers of the Horace Mann pupils. In nearly every instance there was a majority vote of the class favoring the statement as given.

Good Features:

1. We have overcome the difficulty of getting enough references by going to many different sources for enough material so that everyone may be prepared each day.
2. We learn how to organize materials for ourselves and do not have everything prepared for us by the teacher.

A CHART (15 x 35) ON
COMPARATIVE GOVERNMENTS

	United States	England	France	Other Nations
<i>Nations</i>	(Flag)	(Flag)	(Flag)	1. Japan 2. Switzerland 3. Italy 4. Brazil 5. Belgium 6. Spain 7. Germany (before 1914) etc.
<i>Head</i>	President: Woodrow Wilson. Qualifications. Term, Powers, etc.	King: George V. Hereditary Mon- arch. Powers, etc.	President: Paul Deschanel. Term, Powers, etc.	
<i>Cabinet</i>	Appointed by President. List name and position of each.	Prime Minister: Lloyd George. Method of elec- tion. Responsible government.	Prime Minister: Millerand Powers.	
<i>Upper House</i>	The Senate: Qualifications. Term. How Elect- ed. Senators from N. Y.	House of Lords: How composed. Present day powers. Act of 1911.	House of Lords: Number, term. How elected. Powers.	
<i>Lower House</i>	House of Repre- sentatives: Qualifications. Term. How Elect- ed. Powers, etc. District repre- sentative.	House of Com- mons: Number. Term. How elected. Importance of.	Chamber of Deputies: Number, Term. How elected. Importance of a "bloc."	
<i>Remarks</i>	The Supreme Court. The Constitu- tion.	The Unwritten Constitution z. Magna Charta. b. Bill of Rights. c. etc.	The III Re- public and the Constitu- tional Laws of 1875.	

3. We do our arguing and discussing on the basis of "light not heat," and are becoming more broadminded.
4. We gain more lasting information because we have rooted it out for ourselves.
5. It trains us logically—to think clearly and to get our ideas over to the class.
6. The girls have attained an independent attitude of studying and we are getting along much faster.
7. Our discussions are usually the most helpful part of our lessons.

8. Getting and putting things together from the library has helped us a very great deal, not only in history but in everything.
9. Our interest in current literature has been stimulated.
10. We learn how to do things, how to work out our own problems.
11. We learn to thrash out questions for ourselves, instead of relying on textbooks.
12. The girls are more interested and will work harder. They will remember what they learn because they choose the subject and build it up themselves.

Bad Features:

1. We are not yet able to curb unnecessary discussion.
2. We talk too much about "the project method" and what we are going to do next.
3. The home-work assignments are indefinite, although we are improving in this respect.
4. Too much time is spent on one project.
5. It is hard to get references that bear directly on the point of discussion.
6. There is a tendency to wander off the track when becoming interested in something else.
7. We do not do our home work regularly.
8. Too much of the work is carried by a few pupils.
9. The girls who do not do outside reading can get away with it without anyone noticing it.
10. Too much time was spent on the negro problem, but that difficulty has been successfully met in our last project, on prohibition; but the matter still can be improved.
11. We could not go to college on the project method because we never can limit ourselves to any length of time, therefore we could not cover enough ground. (Class about equally divided in its opinion on this last statement.)

From the answers handed in to me by my observers from Teachers College, who have followed the work daily from the beginning of the spring term, the following expressions were compiled. In order to get a general response, both pro and con, I asked the group of regular observers to vote on each statement and have appended their answers, giving the "Yes" vote first in each instance.

Advantages:

1. Tolerance of the opinions of others, open-mindedness, and good will.
(8-0)
2. Self-reliance, i.e., ability to go and gather useful information. (8-0)
3. The beginning of a scientific and critical attitude toward material.
(8-0)

4. General orderliness: (very good [5]; good [3]. Discipline shifted from teacher to group itself: self-government.
5. A get-together spirit and ability to cooperate. This is a remarkable feature. (8-0)
6. Good fellowship and good leadership. (8-0)
7. Acquiring the power to participate in worthwhile constructive discussion. (8-0)
8. An aroused and increased interest. (8-0)
9. Wholehearted activity stimulated in pursuit of knowledge. (7-1)
10. Remarkable facility in using parliamentary procedure as an instrument in conducting class affairs. (8-0)
11. The teacher is "not dethroned." Is in center of the group as adviser and guide instead of dictator. (8-0)
12. Responsibility for the conduct of the work felt to rest on both teacher and pupils. (8-0)
13. Life situations approximated. (7-1)

Disadvantages:

1. Loss of time in ground covered due to parliamentary discussion. The latter, however, felt to be distinctly worth while; a question of relative values. (7-1)
2. Loss of time due to needless discussion, but the class is conscious of this fault and is trying to overcome it. (8-0)
3. A lack of continuous and severe mental work. (3-4)
4. The slower student seems to demand more definiteness in the daily assignment. (7-1)
5. Getting beyond the depths of the pupils so that they talk about things without clearly understanding them. (2-6)
6. Certain required subject-matter slighted. (1-7)
7. Non-participation on part of some members of the class is greater by this method. (3-5)
8. Encourages the expression of opinion not founded on sufficient knowledge. (2-6)

These replies furnish the evidence as to the success and failure of our particular application of the project method. I have purposely arranged these lists so that the dangers and difficulties not successfully overcome should stand last, and consequently leave the stronger impression. For to every one of us who believes in the project method here lies the challenge and here our opportunity.⁵

⁵Quoted in part from *Journal of Educational Method*. Oct. 1921.

THE XITH-YEAR COURSE

One of the most frequent criticisms of this kind of teaching lies in the oft-repeated phrase: "You cannot fit for college by the project method." Last year my XIth grade class in United States history and civics took up this challenge. As one of them expressed it, "Let us make it our project to fit for college by the project method."

At the start we selected the main points of emphasis or essentials of our year's work and listed them as follows:

1. Our Ancestors in Europe
2. Our Natural Inheritance
3. Our Social Inheritance
4. Our Retreating Frontier
5. Our Developing Constitution
6. Our Industrial Progress
7. Our Financial System
8. Our World Relationships
9. Our Present-Day Problems

Some of the projects they carried through were the following:

1. How has the modern map of the world proved to be different from that of Ptolemy? (Westward Expansion)
2. How have our ideals of government changed since the days of Magna Charta? (Study of the Constitution)
3. What were the causes, leading operations, and results of the war for Independence?
4. Trace the development of the financial history of the United States from the days of Hamilton to the Federal Reserve system.
5. What were the underlying causes and results of the Civil War?
6. What has been the policy of the United States in regard to its foreign relations?
7. What have been the causes of the rise and fall of political parties in the United States?
8. Several of our present-day problems were listed and studied as separate projects.

This year's work in some respects was not satisfactory. The organization of the subject matter proved more difficult than for the field of Modern European history. We held more closely to the text and curbed discussion. The class encountered the College

Entrance Board examinations and the results were about the same as in previous classes under my instruction. I believe, however, that another year will find our organization much more efficient and, having profited by past experience, the teacher will be able to guide more skillfully. All this, however, is not to be construed as an admission that I accept the judgments of the College Entrance Board as worth-while objectives in history.

THE XIIITH-YEAR COURSE

“Social, Economic and Political Principles and Problems” is the course designated for the XIIith grade. This should be the crowning year of the high school. Here it is that we have the right to expect clearer thinking, a more intelligent grasp of subject matter, the ability to evaluate evidence, and the display of open-mindedness. To be sure, the teacher must be ever on guard against superficiality, snap-judgment, and “the forensic display of ignorant opinion.” “The essence of critical thinking,” says Dewey, “is suspended judgment,” and that should ever be the ideal held up before these young citizens as they study and discuss the many vexing problems of the world in which they live. “The hope of democracy,” as Lincoln characteristically phrased it, “is that eventually the people will wobble right.” Unanimity of opinion is too much to expect. But if our democracy is to “wobble right” more often than otherwise, we must give our young citizens an opportunity to use and practise it daily in their school life. The only way to gain open-mindedness is to exercise it in class. “The forensic display of ignorant opinion” and the sober expression of intelligent opinion must meet daily in class discussion and fight out their age-old conflict.

These “Present-Day Problems” adapt themselves most naturally and readily to the project method of approach, as, for instance:

1. How has the United States developed its present system of finance?
2. What are the possible solutions of the negro problem?
3. Which of the five types of city government would be best for our city?
4. What are the causes underlying the crime wave and what remedies could best meet the situation to-day?

5. What are some of the suggestions for a fairer distribution of the social income?
6. How did political parties originate in the United States? What do they stand for, and how do they operate?
7. Would it be wise for the United States to join the League of Nations?
8. Should the government of the United States own and operate its own coal fields? Railroads?
9. What are the arguments for and against government paper money?
10. Should the XVIIIth amendment to the Constitution of the United States be retained, repealed or amended?

It would be unwise, in my opinion, to organize "The Problems of Democracy" so that the group would merely study one problem after another, in a more or less hit-or-miss and unrelated fashion, and with little or no background to give the proper perspective. These "Problems" fall naturally into groups: social, political, and economic. Some, to be sure, like the race question, contain aspects of all three. For those problems of a political nature the pupils have already obtained considerable background and general relationship through their study of United States history and government the preceding year. This cannot be said, however, for those of a social and economic character, and so this background must be supplied before the pupils begin the study of cases rising out of them. This, I believe, is particularly true in respect to economic questions.

To be sure there are "Dangers and Difficulties."⁶ Several of these have already been pointed out. One must be particularly careful to guard against superficiality. This would be particularly true if one attempted to cover too many of these problems in the course of the year's work. It would be far wiser to take a smaller number, cover essentials, and learn how to attack them independently.

"'Dangers and Difficulties of the Project Method, A Symposium: Kilpatrick, Bagley, Bonser, Hosic, and Hatch,'" *Teachers College Record*, Sept., 1921.

THE PROBLEM OF COLLEGE ENTRANCE EXAMINATIONS

We are desirous of seeing this course raised to the level of other college entrance subjects. Progressive schools, in line with the recommendations of the several national committees of the social studies group, have installed such courses, and some of these schools are already asking the colleges for recognition. The colleges, however, have hesitated, chiefly because of the great difficulty of determining the field for examination purposes. There is no standardized course, and there should not be. It covers no definite field, like "Modern European History," for example. Each teacher, therefore, is more or less a law unto himself, both as to content and method. A flood of texts with widely different organization and materials have appeared recently, and still there are more to follow.

Under these conditions what can be done to meet the reasonable demands of the colleges? College entrance examinations might be so arranged that any given group of questions would be based on related problems. For instance, Group I might advisably consist of three questions where the problems were mainly of an economic character and the student might be required to select one from this group. A political and a social group could be similarly organized. These might well be followed by a list of general topics, one to be selected by the student, organized and discussed at length. This would bring out the pupil's grasp of materials, his power and ability to express himself clearly and evidence of his outside reading and research. A third type of question might list fifteen brief topics, *e.g.*, "Gresham's law," "the closed shop," "the *laissez-faire* policy," "legal tender," "the commission plan of city government," "the short ballot," "the three per cent immigration law," "the I and R," etc., and the candidate then be asked to write on ten of these.

Such an examination as this would provide the necessary definiteness within an otherwise unlimited field. It would also help greatly if the colleges would make an additional statement in their requirements for this subject which would list several of the leading problems in the three groups, economic, social and political, stating that they would set their examinations within these limits.

Such steps as these would be of great service at just this time. If the colleges will cooperate with some of the leading preparatory schools, some such course as the one outlined here might well take its place with those other subjects in the same field as equally worthy material for college entrance.

USE OF "CIVIC ACTIVITIES"

Thus far in this article we have considered in the first place the re-organization of subject matter and secondly the method of attack. No program for the "social studies" would be complete, however, unless adequate provision was made all along the line for a running fire of civic activities. I am now referring to the training that comes from the actual participation by the pupils in school or group activities when the objective is training in citizenship. These are the civic activities we are hearing so much about, and need to hear more about. Many schools are experimenting along these lines, and we need some sort of exchange so we can compare results, keeping the worth-while and discarding the detrimental. Right habit formations are what we are after. All the activities of the school contain potential citizenship material. Many of these activities develop in, or arise naturally out of, the social studies field, and it seems to fall to the lot of the teacher of these subjects to guide the conduct of the young citizens in the society in which they move.

You doubtless remember the story that Petrarch tells of the old Greek who attended the games at Olympia. He was late in arriving and found it difficult to find a seat in that crowded amphitheatre. He was old and poorly dressed, and the Greeks jeered and poked fun at him as he passed from group to group vainly looking for a seat. At last he came to the Spartans, who rose as one man, and made room for him. On observing this action the spectators broke into applause, whereupon the old man observed: "All the Greeks *know* what it is good to do, but only the Spartans *practice* it."

Whatever the course of study, let us trust that there will be enough free play so that the teacher may seize the vital situation, incidental to all her classroom work, and drive in her citizenship

training through concrete applications, in school and out. A course of study that cannot be thrown out of the window when a real situation comes in at the door is a clog and a hindrance in the training of citizens. Sometimes as teachers we seem to forget the importance of developing character in the many contacts and reactions that come in just living together.

The following illustration of citizenship training in a real social situation occurred in our VIth grade. The class was unduly eager, so eager that they constantly interrupted the one who had the floor. The customary methods of repression were tried, but this lack of proper courteous behavior persisted. Earlier in the year the grade had organized itself into a Civic League with officers and constitution. At one of their League meetings arrangements had been made to conduct an old-fashioned New England town-meeting. The warrant was drawn up and posted in due form. The various articles dealt with real situations in their school community, and one of them read as follows: "To see what action the League will take in regard to courteous attitude in class." When the Moderator called up this article there was considerable open discussion; the worth-whileness of it was generally recognized and a resolution was passed to the effect that henceforth the League should be more courteous and mindful of the rights of others. But the matter was not allowed to rest here. A wrong habit must be made over into a right one. There was need of an ideal of courtesy which could only be realized by every-day activity in checking this particular fault—namely, interrupting others. An acrostic was drawn up which read as follows:

C—consideration and
O—obedience
U—you
R—resolved
T—to-day
E—every day
S—satisfactory to
Y—yourself

This was placed on the board in colored chalk. It was the "ideal which should serve as a conscious guide to conduct." It was their ideal; they felt a responsibility in seeing that it was

lived up to. Whenever any member of the group 'broke over' after this, it was nearly always sufficient merely to point to the acrostic. This was done either by the teacher or by some member or members of the class. The social disapproval of the group soon made itself manifest. We were after a right attitude in a specific case; and it was our hope that the "tendency to act produced by the ideal would develop into an almost automatic action in accordance with the ideal." There were several especially difficult cases. Old habits are not easily changed, and made over into new. One hundred percent perfect was never realized. But the method employed was justified by its results.

In the junior and senior-high-school years are to be found splendid materials and opportunities for direct citizenship training in the every-day activities of the school and community. The General Association, The Student's Council, Debating Societies, Literary and Social Clubs, Organizations for Charitable Purposes, Participation in Community Activities, Self Government in the School as exemplified in Supervised Study Halls, Traffic Squads, Election of Class Officers, etc.

"Action is the goal of civics teaching." This fundamental principle of Community Civics is to be found in the editor's preface of Mabel Hill's helpful book on "The Teaching of Civics." Dr. Suzzallo goes on to say: "The child who has tried to participate in any given situation will have a sense of reality about it that can never be had from conversation or books."

The student should be led to participate in the real civic activities of his community. He is a citizen now and has very definite present-day responsibilities. He should be given opportunities to 'live' his civics. There follow four illustrations of such opportunities.

1. Class Nominations and Elections

The following plan has been used with success by classes in large city high schools:

- I. *The clerk.* The civics teacher acts as clerk.
- II. *Nomination papers.* All candidates must be placed in nomination by means of nomination papers. These papers are secured and signed in the following manner. Anyone wishing to take out a nomination paper must go

to the clerk and state that he wishes to take out a nomination blank for giving the name of the candidate and the office. The clerk then looks up the record of the candidate and if he or she is found to be in regular and satisfactory standing, prepares a nomination paper. Twenty-five (25) signatures (this number, of course, may be adapted to size of class) are necessary to put a candidate in nomination, and they must be *bona fide* signatures of members of the class, with no duplicates or false names. Every voter may sign as many nomination papers for each office to be filled as there are persons to be elected thereto, and no more.

III. *Time of filing nomination papers.* All nomination papers must be in the hands of the clerk for inspection not later than.....

IV. *The election.* The election will take place on..... The class will go to the city polling-booth, Ward 3, Precinct 2. (If the civics teacher cannot secure a regular polling-booth with ballot-box near the school, he can rig up a polling-booth in one of the schoolrooms.) The ballots will be cast according to the regular Australian method, using printed ballots. Each voter should see to it that she is duly enrolled on the class or voting list. Specimen ballots will be posted in each classroom.

V. *The officials.* The Warden, Deputy-Warden, Clerk, Deputy-Clerk and Checkers will be appointed by the Clerk from members of the class.

VI. *The polls.* The polls open at.....and close at.....

2. Parliamentary Practice

There are few exercises more helpful than training in parliamentary practice. At first, of course, the organization must be simple and the rules of procedure not too complex. Let the class or group organize itself into a Lyceum with appropriate name and object and a simple constitution. Officials could then be elected according to the Australian system, and the regular order of business put through. The questions for discussion should, for the most part, be matters of their own knowledge and community of interest. It is to be doubted if any training we can give in our schools is more helpful in developing individuality and leadership than the training that comes from debating and parliamentary practice.

An unresponsive class, when organized along the lines suggested above, oftentimes surprises the teacher in its readiness to take hold of work of this sort. And, of course, the social attitude which is developed, reacts favorably in the regular classroom work.

A helpful little book showing how a club may be organized with a clear statement of the rules of procedure, typical constitution, etc., is *The Student's Handbook of Parliamentary Law*, Frederick Leighton, Oswego, N. Y. Price 20 cents.

3. A Court of Naturalization

The following plan may be used to exemplify the process of naturalization: Turn the auditorium or classroom into a courtroom. The teacher or some selected pupil may act as a judge, two clerks as recorders. Any number of applicants may be prepared to take out "First" and "Second" papers. Some are ready for "The Hearing" and "The Taking of the Oath of Allegiance." Every now and then some applicant comes forward with a special case. The Judge announces all questions in dispute, and determines the status of the applicant.

When the time comes for the Judge's charge and the taking of the Oath of Allegiance, a delegation of pupils, carrying the flag, can march in to stirring music. If the school has a cadet company or a scout troop, this can be worked out very effectively. Then one of the pupils might give an excerpt from President Wilson's speech before newly naturalized citizens given at Philadelphia, May 10, 1915; the exercise to close with the singing of "America."

The dialogue is natural, and can easily be worked out in advance. The questions asked should be taken from the regular forms: "Declaration of Intention" and "Petition of Naturalization." A very helpful book is: *Civics for New Americans*, Hill and Davis, Houghton, Mifflin Co. The Appendix of this volume contains information on "How to Become a Citizen of the United States."

4. Projects in Citizenship¹

The young citizen must train his citizenship muscles if he would win for America.

See also the *Twentieth Yearbook*, Pt. I, of this Society, pp. 134-154.
—Editor.

1. An anti-litter campaign, on school-grounds or in district or home street
2. Clean-Up week (A committee appointed by the civics class should report for study to the general city committee)
3. A campaign against the tussock moth, gypsy moth or common tent-caterpillar
4. The making of an outdoor running track, tennis court, or hand-ball court

¹All the civic activities listed below have actually been carried out by civics classes or clubs in the public schools. See the writer's "Project in citizenship," *Historical Outlook*, Feb., 1922; also a 50-page booklet on "Projects in Citizenship," by R. W. Hatch, containing illustrated material giving civic activities, simplified rules of parliamentary procedure, type constitutions, creeds and slogans, dramatizations, and showing how to organize and conduct a debating society, a socialized recitation and project teaching.

Published by The Citizenship Company, Leonia, N. J. Price fifty cents.

5. Building of cement walks around the school yard
6. A campaign against bill-boards
7. A campaign for clean speech
8. A Safety-First campaign; "Don't Get Hurt"
9. A drive for better personal hygiene (be specific)
10. A campaign against the abuse of school property
11. A petition to the proper authorities to close a street for recreation purposes
12. A campaign against tardiness
13. A thrift campaign: plan individual budgets
14. The writing of cheerful, helpful notes to fellow pupils who are ill; a visiting committee
15. The collection of second-hand clothes, books or toys for proper distribution to nurseries, hospitals and worthy homes
16. The preparation of baskets for Thanksgiving dinners to the needy of the neighborhood
17. A Community Christmas tree
18. Exhibits of the products of school gardens, sewing circles, shop articles, canning clubs, etc.
19. The cleaning up of some spot of civic or historic interest, erection of an appropriate tablet or marker
20. A campaign for a "Safe and Sane" Fourth of July
21. Campaign for the proper observation of all patriotic or civic holidays, in school and out
22. The beautifying of a little park in the town or city
23. The making of a guide book of the vicinity
24. Fixing up the "old swimming hole" or a baseball diamond
25. Appropriate celebration of Constitution Day
26. A "swat the fly" or mosquito campaign
27. Beautifying and adorning the school building; correlating with all school subjects
28. Campaign against unsportsmanlike conduct at games
29. Appoint committees to inspect grocery stores, butcher stores, ice cream parlors, etc.

Such then is our program in the social studies in the junior and senior-high-school years. It comprises not only a different method of attack but a re-alignment of materials to be accompanied all along the line by a running fire of civic activities. Inspiration, information, participation: these are the three aims to be kept constantly in mind in the training of our young citizens.

CHAPTER IX

THE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM OF THE DETROIT PUBLIC SCHOOLS

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It is a difficult matter to give in a single paper an adequate conception of a program as diversified as that of the social studies. While the Detroit program is in many respects very much the same as that of other cities of its kinds, certain points of emphasis may, for purposes of comparison and discussion, be of general interest. The following 'high spots' are listed as characteristic: (1) an administrative organization—platoon schools, intermediate schools, and high schools organized with a definite social-civic point of view; (2) a continuous course of study in the social studies, Grades I to XII; (3) development of student self-government as a phase of social-civic-economic instruction; (4) actual participation in social-civic-economic affairs through safety clubs, scouting, local, state and national elections, etc.; (5) a constructive interest in general social activities; (6) a system of plant visitation, private and public, with a view to developing social-civic-economic concepts through the observation of such activities; (7) the regular courses in history, geography, civics, sociology, economics, industrial history, etc.; (8) a point of view that recognizes the social studies as a means of adding to the social-civic-economic *experiences* of pupils; (9) the introduction of current materials with at least a partial selection of past materials from the point of view of their value in solving present and probable future problems; (10) an experimental study of curriculum materials. No attempt will be made to discuss the entire list of topics as here given.

THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM

The Department of Social Studies¹ of the Detroit Public Schools has now for some time past been actively engaged in the reor-

¹This work is in charge of Mr. Arthur Dondineau, Supervisor of Social Studies.

ganization of the social studies curriculum. The point of departure in this work has been in the main that of analysis of social-civic-economic needs of every-day life rather than that of readjusting *subjects*. The following program, taken from a preliminary statement of aim, may serve to give the point of view:

The program includes (1) the listing of concrete objectives; (2) the determination of proper activities (experiences) for the development of these objectives (these may be things to do, things to observe or things to read about); (3) the placing of activities on their proper grade level through the actual classroom trial of materials; (4) the development of specific ways and means (methods) of handling the various activities. (The same method can not be applied indiscriminately to all activities.)

"The diagram following [here omitted for lack of space] represents a concrete listing of specific objectives to be attained on the various grade levels. The attainment of these various objectives listed will depend on the teacher's background and ability to view the social studies as actual public affairs of the past, present, and future. A study of the past is of value in so far as it assists in analyzing and understanding the present and determining the future course of events. In an analysis of human affairs the future is of more consequence to the average individual than either the past or present. The social sciences should provide the pupils with situations which *are actual social situations*, dealing with the main currents of public affairs which have their sources in the past or the present, but which, because of their complex nature and scope, are understandable only after a long period of observation. The objectives listed in the manner given are intended to suggest to the teacher the need of having a concrete program and a definite purpose on the part of the teacher and pupil in the study of social situations which constantly confront every active, interested citizen of our democracy."

SOCIAL-CIVIC-ECONOMIC INSTRUCTION THROUGH PARTICIPATION

The social studies employ a technical language. "Charters," "compacts," "habeas corpus," "selectmen," "trusts," "representation," "alliances," "patriots," "truces," "confederation," "nullification," "free trade," "legal tender," "internal improvements," "free silver," "impeachment," are for the most part vaguely understood by the average school pupil. There is such a thing as a word-education, an education that develops skilled manipulation of words and adds little to the real substance of life. The *fundamental* experiences (minimal essentials) of civic edu-

tion, limited in number though they must be, will doubtless in the future be increasingly given through actual participation in social-civic-economic affairs. The following Detroit activities are perhaps typical of the present tendencies in the social studies in that school system:

1. Student government in its various forms, directed not so much from the point of view of the best form of government as from the point of view of the best method of training pupils.
2. A recognition of the educative value of general social activities. Men do not succeed merely by their intelligence, abstract intelligence, reasoning. The social factors are important: cooperation, team work, group activities in and out of school. Many so-called extra curricular activities are rapidly becoming curricular.
3. School Elections. In 1919 the Detroit Schools initiated a plan of school elections whereby pupils in the sixth grade and above participate in local, state, and national elections. This is not a straw vote but an actual election with emphasis upon correct election procedure and the understanding of issues.
4. Scouting. The Detroit School-Scout Cooperation Plan was started in 1920. A Field Scout Executive² was employed by the Board of Education and turned over to the Detroit Scout Council for the purpose of developing scout troops in the schools. There are now 55 troops meeting regularly in school buildings with 35 of these actually affiliated with the schools.
5. Safety Clubs.³ The following statement taken from the course of study in Safety Education will illustrate the plan:

"It is the common experience of teachers to find that the pupils, when they become interested in safety, want to form a club. The best form for such an organization to take varies, of course, with the age of the children and with local conditions. One first-grade teacher has a room of "Safety Helpers," and each week they choose some safety idea or some safe practice

²Mr. Waldo Hunt, School Scout Executive.

³Miss Harriet Beard, Supervisor of Safety Education.

to work out, as individuals and as a class. "Safety Helpers" seems to be a popular name, and other suggestions are a "Life and Limb Club" or a "Citizens' League." In one school the eighth grade has organized a very efficient group of "Safety Patrols," distinguished by arm bands with the letters S. P., furnished by the school. The membership was confined at first to Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, and Campfire Girls, but has been enlarged to include other pupils who prove themselves to be workers for safety. These pupils help the younger children across the street, report dangerous violations of traffic laws, and by their own care in observing safety laws exert a helpful influence in the neighborhood and set a standard for the school. Each room and each school may profitably have a safety committee or a safety organization. Members should be chosen from those who by their conduct have shown themselves to be working for the safety of others, as well as for their own observance of safety principles."

SOCIAL-CIVIC-ECONOMIC INSTRUCTION THROUGH OBSERVATION

In 1921, a plan for "plant visitation" was established. While the original plan was largely vocational, the scope of the work has been gradually enlarged to include the visitation of public buildings, civic undertakings, etc. The importance of this method of adding to a pupil's social-civic-economic experience has scarcely been recognized in this country. An undertaking of this sort has both administrative and instructional handicaps: (1) the average school organization provides for "recitation," but not for "observation;" (2) books of methods are in the main "methods of the recitation." Before observation can be carried forward most effectively there must be developed a technique of observation.

SOCIAL-CIVIC-ECONOMIC INSTRUCTION THROUGH LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES

The core of the social-civic-economic instruction in the Detroit Public Schools rests, as it does with most schools, in the studies: history, geography, economics, civics, sociology, industrial history, etc. The outstanding problem in this phase of the program is to find suitable reading materials. Professor Bobbitt⁴ has given a commendable description of such materials in his discussion of occupational readings:

⁴Bobbitt, *The Curriculum*, pages 108-9.

"Occupations are to be seen in their nation-wide and world-wide distribution. The means must be mainly reading. This will be largely narrative in character. As one reads concerning any occupation, the aim will be the reconstruction in the imagination of the reader of an inner world of occupational experiences in which, lost to sense of time and place, he can participate, as a shadow-member of the group, so to speak, and thus enter sympathetically into the experiences with an intellectual and emotional vividness not greatly dissimilar to that which accompanies actual objective observation and participation. As one reads *Captains Courageous*, for example, one is for the time, so far as his consciousness is concerned, a fisherman off the banks of Newfoundland, almost as completely as if he were there in the flesh. Then as one reads *The Lumberman*, one's habitation is shifted to the wilds of Michigan in its early days, and one becomes an active and interested participant in the logging industry along the rivers."

CONCLUSION

For the most part the activities here described are those of the typical school of to-day. It has not been the writer's aim to center attention upon activities, but to discuss the larger aspects of the social studies program. Not infrequently our discussion centers upon the more or less formalized phases of the work to the exclusion of the informal. The program of the future should rest upon a recognition of the place of observation, participation, and language activities in their larger relationships, to the end that we may have a more fundamental instruction in social-civic-economic affairs.

CHAPTER X

THE COURSE OF STUDY IN HISTORY IN THE UNIVERSITY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL AT THE STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA

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The course of study in history in the University Elementary School is frankly experimental. It represents an attempt to adapt the work of the first six grades to that of the junior and senior divisions of the University High School. This course is modeled on the course recommended by the Committee on Social Sciences in Secondary Schools. It provides for two cycles of European and American history, each chronologically arranged. For that reason it does not seem necessary to provide another cycle in the first six grades. Moreover, since the recommendations of this Committee place the European background in the seventh grade, the whole plan earlier recommended by the Committee of Eight is upset. This is quite a serious matter because of the fact that practically all of the books available for the first six grades are written to fit the recommendations in the Report of the Committee of Eight.

In this emergency several possible programs could be used in the elementary school. One could push the recommendations of the Committee of Eight ahead one year, presenting in general a chronological treatment of American history somewhat more difficult than has been the custom. While present books are not well suited to such a plan, this method is quite feasible. In fact, it has been effectively carried out in many schools.

At the time of the first report of the Committee on Social Sciences the staff of the University Elementary School decided to organize history in the first six grades strictly on the basis of dramatic interests. The whole purpose was to interest pupils in reading history. There was little class discussion of materials read. In fact, the class periods were spent chiefly in reading an interesting historical selection. The general plan was to read an

interesting selection aloud with the class and then allow members of the class to continue reading on their own responsibility. Books by such authors as Parkman and Roosevelt were used for this purpose. One year's experience seemed to show that it is possible to get considerable interest on the part of most pupils, but that the books read could very well be incorporated with those in the course of study in literature.

For the last six years the course of study has been organized in the following manner:¹

In Grade I the time is given to simple problems in civics and to such history as lies back of special days.

The course of study in Grade II introduces the pupils to a very concrete study of the social and economic problems in an Indian community. The course here is very similar in emphasis to that reported by Miss Gilmore in the *Teachers College Record* for September, 1915, but is worked out in much greater detail. The following outline, taken directly from the course of study, illustrates the manner in which this course is organized. It represents one of the thirty main problems around which Indian life is taught.

SAMPLE LESSON ON INDIAN DYES

The problem: Where did the Indians get their bright colors in making baskets, blankets, and mats?

- A. Reports and discussions by children
- B. Outline for teacher's use

1. What could we find around Iowa City to use in making colors? Vegetables, nuts, leaves, roots, soft rocks, fruit, colored clay
Project. Find what colors can be secured by boiling leaves, roots, fruits, etc. (Good color secured from osage apple, noting fact that just recently a substitute for German dye has been found in osage roots)

¹The following persons should be given credit for the samples of courses of study hereafter presented. For the course of study in Indian life, Miss Georgia Brown and Miss Frances Dearborn; for the course of study in pioneer life, Miss Mabel Green and Mrs. Ethelyn Weida; for the course of study on the history of medicine and improvement of health conditions, Miss Helen Davis and Miss Mabel Snedaker. The authors are also indebted to the following persons for suggestions in the final organization of the manuscript: Miss Maude McBroom, Director O. E. Klingaman of the Extension Division, and Professor Don N. Griswold, Associate Professor of Preventative Medicine and Hygiene, and State Epidemiologist.

2. What could the Indian have used?
 - a. Vegetable (organic) substances
 - Yellow—from twigs, and leaves of sumac, lichens, beech and willow bark, mustard, and peach leaves
 - Brown—walnuts, butternuts, onion leaves
 - Brownish red—from alder bark
 - Purple—from grape juice
 - Bluish purple—from blueberry, elderberry
 - Red—from bloodroot, cactus, cochineal
 - Pink—from cranberry
 - Black—from gum of pinon tree
 - Nearly black—from oakbark, pokeberries
 - b. Mineral (inorganic) substances
 - Black—from charcoal, graphite, powdered coal, soot
 - White—from kaolin, gypsum, limestone (used to whitewash Pueblo bricks)
 - Green and blue—from copper ores, phosphate of iron, blue clay
 - Vermilion—obtained from the white trader
 - Red paint—from burned grass roots, blood and tallow, or from red clay
 - Yellow—from yellow clay
 3. How was paint made? (See Skinner)
 - a. Materials collected
 - b. Pulverized and mixed with water
 - c. Baked until red hot
 - d. Cooled and put in bags
 - e. To use. Scrape off a little from cake and mix with hot grease
 4. How was dye fixed so it would not wash out?
 - With juice of wild sweet scented crab
 5. To what other uses were colors put?
 - Painting Indians' faces, bodies, arrows, pictures, tipis, etc.
- C. Projects
- Make vegetable dyes (by washing and boiling. Put in receptacles for use in painting)
 - Make cake of Indian paint (according to Skinner's method)
 - Dip cloth in dyes made, or paint pictures and Indian designs
- D. References:
1. For children's reports
 - Skinner. *Notes on the Plains Cree*. p. 81, Paints
 - Hodge. *Handbook of American Indians*, Vol. I. pp. 407, 408. Dyes and Pigments
 - Wade. *Ten Little Indians*. pp. 199-200, Making paint. Blackfeet
 2. For teacher
 - Dellenbaugh. *North Americans of Yesterday*. pp. 303, 304
 - Pellew. *Dyes and Dyeing*
 - Elementary School Journal*. Feb., 1917
 - Hodge. *Handbook of American Indians*, Vol. I. pp. 403-404, Dry painting; p. 506, Paint; p. 514, White wash; pp. 407-408, Dyes and Pigments; pp. 325, 326, Color symbolism; p. 865, Paint mines; Vol. II, pp. 185-186, Painting, Use of brushes

Space is not available for presenting arguments for and against the teaching of Indian life in the primary grades. There is no question about the interest of the pupils in such material. It is the judgment of the various teachers who have taught this outline that it is a valuable contribution to the second-grade course of study. This much seems clear; if the study of Indian life is to make a contribution to the understanding of the economic and social problems of to-day, the subject must be presented with as much concreteness as is indicated in this outline.

The course of study in Grade III is concerned with the simple problems in a pioneer community. These problems are taken up quite in detail and are kept very concrete. The purpose of the course of study in the second and third grades is similar to that in the course of study in Dewey's Elementary School at Chicago. The intention is to give the child some insight into the major fundamental problems in a pioneer community and to show the inter-relationships which exist among these problems. This knowledge is then made the basis for the organization of the work in Grades IV, V, and VI.

The following problem will indicate how in Grade III the child is introduced to higher standards of living and to the more complicated methods which make these standards possible.

SAMPLE LESSON FROM GRADE III ON 'THE FOOD OF THE PIONEERS'

Problems: How did the pioneers get their food?
What foods did they have? What kinds? How did they get them?
Summary: Wild foods: berries, nuts, grapes, greens, crabapples, wild plums, wild cherries

Meat: game, fish

Grain: corn and wheat

Vegetables: potatoes, cabbage, turnips, etc.

Meat: beef, pork, mutton, veal, and fowls

Milk, butter and eggs

How did they sweeten their food?

How did they get salt?

References: Aurner. *Iowa Stories.* pp. 83, 112, 113, 129
Barle. *Home Life in Colonial Days.* pp. 131, 136, 147, 148, 158
Sabin. *The Making of Iowa.* (Wild Food) pp. 33, 155, 163-64, 166
Garland. *Prairie Folk.* p. 160
Burrows. *Fifty Years in Iowa.* p. 7
McMurray. *Type Studies from U. S.* (First series) pp. 134, 136
Gue. *History of Iowa, Vol. I.* pp. 387, 390
Bass. *Stories of Pioneer Life.* p. 106

Aurner. *History of Johnson County*, Vol. I. p. 3, 13, 16, 17, 19
 Nida. *Letters of Polly the Pioneer*. pp. 17, 46, 51-2, 61, 63-65.
 68, 69, 83

Mace. *History Reader*, Book I. p. 85

Project: Make rabbit trap and prairie chicken trap

Illustrations: Nida. *Letters of Polly the Pioneer*. pp. 36, Bear in trap

Mace. *History Reader*, Book I, pp. 85. Eel fishing

Gue. *History of Iowa*, Vol. I, p. 387. Prairie chicken, wild turkey

Problem: How did the pioneers cook their food?

Baked:

1. In a Dutch oven
2. On a board in front of the fireplace
3. In a brick oven

Fried food in skillets over the coals

Boiled food in skillets over the coals

Roasted food in hot ashes

Broiled food over the fire

References: Aurner. *Iowa Stories*. p. 82

Bass. *Stories of Pioneer Life*. p. 107

Nida. *Letters of Polly the Pioneer*. pp. 32, 33, 65

Mowry. *American Inventions and Inventors*. pp. 27-30

Aurner. *History of Johnson County*. p. 17

Howell. *Years of my Youth*, IX, paragraphs 6 and 7

Illustrations: Mewry. *American Inventions and Inventors*. p. 30

Earle. *Home Life in the Colonial Days*. p. 147, cooking.

p. 55, How kettles were hung for cooking

Bass. *Stories of Pioneers*. p. 107, kettles over fire

Nida. *Letters of Polly the Pioneer*. p. 33, Skillets and Dutch oven

Livingston. *Glimpses of Pioneer Life*. p. 120

Projects: Roast potatoes in hot ashes

Roast eggs in hot ashes

Problem: How did they sweeten their food?

References: Nida. *Letters of Polly the Pioneer*. pp. 123-127. Making maple sugar

Nida. *Letters of Polly the Pioneer*. pp. 127-131. How they got sorghum, maple sugar, and honey

Sabin. *The Making of Iowa*. p. 164, 203. Were the bee trees thought important by the pioneers?

Project: Tap maple trees—make maple syrup and sugar

Note how much sap it takes to make a small quantity of syrup

Illustrations: Nida. *Letters of Polly the Pioneer*. p. 125, Tapping the maple tree

Problems: How did they make their hominy?

In what other way did they prepare corn for food?

Reference: Aurner. *Iowa Stories*. pp. 83, 84

Project: Parch corn. Make hominy

Problem: How did they get their flour and oatmeal?

References: Bass. *Stories of Pioneer Life*. pp. 108-109

Sabin. *The Making of Iowa*. 156.

Nida. *Letters of Polly the Pioneer*. pp. 34-37

Aurner. *History of Johnson County*

Shambaugh. Iowa City. A Contribution to Early History of Iowa.
 pp. 47-50

Aurner. *Iowa Stories.* pp. 104-109

Gue. *History of Iowa.* Vol. 1, p. 298

Illustrations: Aurner. *History of Johnson County.* p. 423. Coral Mill on Iowa River

Bass. *Stories of Pioneer Life.* p. 108, Pounding the corn; p. 35, Hominy block; p. 36, Hand Mill; p. 37, Going to mill

Nida. p. 35, Hominy block; p. 36, Hand mill; p. 37; Going to mill

Mace. *History Reader, Book I,* p. 85, Pounding corn to meal

Aurner. *Iowa Stories.* p. 106, Mill stones

Bourne & Benton. *History of U. S.* p. 314, Grinding corn on the frontier

Bogart. *Economic History of the U. S.* p. 152, How Grist mills were run by water

Edgar. *The Story of a Grain of Wheat.* p. 150, Mill-stones grinding

Gue. *History of Iowa,* Vol. I, p. 371, Mill on Iowa River

Project: Bake a corn-dodger

Problem: How did they preserve food for winter use?

References: Aurner. *Iowa Stories.* pp. 84 and 85

Earle. *Home Life in Colonial Days.* pp. 152 and 153

Nida. *Letters of Polly the Pioneer.* p. 46

Project: Dry apples

Problem: Where did they get their salt?

References: Nida. *Letters of Polly the Pioneer.* pp. 57, 58

McMurray. *Type Studies.* p. 136

Problems: How did they churn their butter?

How did they keep milk and butter sweet?

Reference: Chase and Clow. *Stories of Industry,* (Old Edition), Vol 2. pp. 104-105

Illustrations: Chase and Clow. *Stories of Industry,* Vol. 2. p. 104, Pioneer dairy

Allen. *Industrial Studies of the U. S.* p. 228, Old-fashioned churn

Project: Make a butter ladle

Make a dasher

Churn as pioneers did

Problem: How do we preserve food for future use today?

Children report how their mothers prepare food for future use

Problem: How did the pioneers get their water?

References: Earle. *Home Life in Colonial Days.* p. 443

Aurner. *Iowa Stories.* pp. 85-87

Nida. *Letters of Polly the Pioneer.* p. 37, 30-31

Illustrations: Nida. *Letters of Polly the Pioneer.* p. 38, Method of carrying water

Livingston. *Glimpses of Pioneer Life.* p. 25, Old-fashioned well

Keller and Bishop. *Commercial and Industrial Geography.* p. 314
Old-fashioned well

Earle. *Home Life in Colonial Days.* p. 444, Well-sweep

Carpenter. *Foods and their Uses.* p. 156, Old-fashioned bucket.

As in the case of Indian life, the writers can not enter into a justification of pioneer history. The material as presented is exceedingly interesting to the children. It is the judgment of all

concerned that the educational values resulting from the study of these problems are very great. The writers would urge, as in the case of Indian history, that, if pioneer history is to make its greatest contribution to the interpretation of modern life, it must be taught very concretely and very accurately.

The work of Grades IV, V, and VI is outlined so as to make a contribution directly to the understanding of important problems and conditions in modern life. The chief problems taken up are as follows:

Grade IV. In this and the succeeding grades the organization is around certain large phases of present-day life, the purpose being to show how the solution of these problems involved in these phases of life has been advanced. In Grade IV the work centers about the history of transportation and communication, the history of clothing, the history of telling time, and the history of the fishing industry.

Grade V. The history of agriculture, the growth of cities, the history of clay and pottery industries, the history of extractive industries, and the printing and paper industries.

Grade VI. The history of architecture, shelter, and household furnishings; the history of music; the history of medicine, and the improvement of health conditions; and the history of recreational activities.

While the topics given in these three grades represent some of the most important phases of civilization, the writers understand that the list is not a complete one. The list as it stands represents the work which has been done in the University Elementary School up to the present time. In teaching these problems the practice has been to include under each, such economic, sociological, civic, and historical data as seemed most essential to the proper understanding of the problem. A problem relating to the improvement in health conditions and in the use of medicines is given in detail to illustrate the manner in which the course of study is organized.

This "History of Medicine" represents an attempt to organize a unit, in the six-grade course of study in history, in the light of modern problems. The problems about which the outline is built have been growing in importance for many years until, to-day,

problems arising out of the safeguarding of the nation's health are receiving more attention than ever before. The amount of space in magazines and other publications devoted to health, the number of journals devoted exclusively to health work, recent legislation in regard to public health, and increased supervision of public health, all show a heightened realization of its value.

The outline is by no means a finished product. A great deal more work must be done upon it before it can be said to cover the problems adequately. In its present form, it is open to criticism on several scores. First, the reference material is difficult to obtain. Many of the magazines listed are not in the average school library, or even in many public libraries. An attempt has been made to offset this disadvantage by confining the references so far as possible to recent issues of these magazines. Second, additional reference material is needed. Lack of data necessitates developing problems from the standpoint of observation. Other problems have too few references to supply a class with sufficient material for rigorous work in a socialized recitation. Third, the outline is weak in regard to the fields of public sanitation and of preventive medicine. Fourth, the problems in the field of public sanitation have not enough historical background. Each is attacked almost entirely from the modern aspect of the problem. Fifth, too large a proportion of the outline is devoted to the history of disease. Sixth, some of the problems are such that they cannot be fully comprehended by children in Grade VI. However, these problems are interesting to the pupils, and a foundation is laid for future reading and for more thorough study in later grades.

Notwithstanding these many shortcomings, those who have worked out this outline with a class feel that a study of the problems in the "History of Medicine" does develop in the pupils certain knowledges and attitudes very much worth while.

Among the knowledges may be listed:

- (1) The relation of health to achievement. This is basic.
- (2) The progress which has been made in the prevention and control of disease and in the improvement of health conditions.

- (3) The problems which still confront us, particularly those most pressing in our own state and in our own community.
- (4) Those modern superstitions which have replaced the old-fashioned ones.
- (5) The fact that many health problems must be solved by cooperative efforts.

The most satisfactory outgrowth of the study is the attitude of personal responsibility developed in the class by presenting the problems from a social point of view. Such an attitude will make the pupil, as a future citizen, active toward health and the improvement of health conditions. He will not be among those who are indifferent to inadequate public sanitation and to bad industrial conditions, or careless as to personal hygiene and home sanitation.

Altogether, the study of the "History of Medicine" does help in accomplishing one of the vital objectives set up by all organizations working in the interests of the nation's health. It gives a knowledge of the importance of health and of measures for safeguarding the nation's health.

WHAT PROGRESS HAS BEEN MADE IN THE IMPROVEMENT OF HEALTH CONDITIONS AND IN THE USE OF MEDICINES?

A. Approach to the Problem

The most desirable approach to the study of this problem is through the discussion of some disease or health condition which is critical in the immediate community. Questions such as the following will give the pupils an opportunity to tell what they know about local conditions.

1. Have there been any contagious diseases in our town or city recently which have caused people to lose time from school or work?
2. What was done to control these diseases?
3. Could these diseases have been prevented?
4. Do you know how many deaths there were in the United States last year? What is our present death rate?
5. Can we judge of the amount of illness there is by the number of people in the hospitals?
6. Have you read or heard a statement as to the number of men who were rejected from the army because they were physically unfit for service?

From the discussion of these problems there should be brought out those divisions which the pupils should understand if they are to be made intelligent

and active toward public health and the improvement of health conditions. These divisions will be more effective if stated in the form of questions, but the main problem should be clearly stated and never lost sight of.

The divisions of this problem which are to be studied are:

I. What are some of the things that have made us realize the importance of understanding how our health and the health of others may be improved?

II. Along what lines has most progress been made in improving health conditions?

B. Detailed Course

I. What are some of the things that have made us realize the importance of understanding how our health and the health of others may be improved?

1. How have the rejections from the army and navy made us realize the need for this improvement?

- a. How many men were rejected?
- b. What were the causes of rejection?

Ref. Statistical Abstract of the United States for 1917. p. 667
American Journal of Public Health, Vol. 9; Sept. 1919. pp. 641-645. ("Are we Physically Fit?") by Rupert Blue.
 Bulletin No. 11 of the War Department for March, 1919.
Scientific American Supplement, Vol. 85, p. 105.

2. Is our death rate higher than it should be?

- a. What is the annual death rate in the United States?
- b. How do we get an accurate record of deaths?

- (1) What is the Registration Area?
- (2) What laws in regard to registration of births and deaths have been passed in our own state?
- (3) What conditions must Iowa fulfill before she can become a part of the Registration Area?

c. How does our death rate for specific diseases compare with the death rate for these diseases in other countries?

d. Which diseases cause the most deaths?

- (1) Which of these are preventable?
- (2) Which are the most difficult to cure?

Ref. *Current Opinion*, Vol. 61; p. 401.
Annals of the American Academy of Political Science, Vol. 70; pp. 77-91.

Abstract of the United States Census.

United States Bureau of Census-Mortality Statistics for 1914. pp. 9-10.

Hughes: pp. 72-73.

North American Review, Vol. 202; pp. 181-184.

Hough & Sedgwick. pp. 558-561.

Allen. pp. 136-138.

Ritchie: *Primer of Sanitation*. pp. 180-185.

3. How much is lost in production because of illness?

Ref. *Sci. Amer. Supplement*, Vol. 82. p. 398-400.

II. Along what lines has most progress been made?

1. Why is there so much less use of superstition now than formerly in treating illness?

- a. How long have people used superstition in attempts to cure themselves?
- b. What were the superstitions practised by the people of former times?
 - (1) What was the value of them?
 - (2) Why did the people believe in them so completely?

Ref. Ryan. pp. 167-168.

Walsh. *Old Time Makers*. p. 21.

Magnus. pp. 7-15, 24-88, 131-155.

Buck. pp. 10, 13, 14-16, 19-50, 51-54, 62-66.

Myers. *History of Greece*. pp. 539-540.

Catholic World. Vol. 105. pp. 53-61.

Scient. Amer. Supplements, Vol. 81. pp. 344.

Gulick. pp. 286, 290.

Davis. pp. 78-82.

Godfrey. pp. 80-81.

Rickett. pp. 195-6.

- c. What modern superstitions and beliefs in "quack" cures prevent us from having the best health conditions?

- (1) Why do we have laws which control the making and sale of patent medicines?

- (2) Do people still use fake cures?

Ref. *Scient. Amer. Supplement*: Vol. 80. p. 331.

Lit. Digest: Vol. 54. p. 1459; May 12, 1917.

American City: Vol. 13. pp. 542-543.

Pop. Sci. Mo.: Vol. 83. p. 81.

Nat. Geographic Mag.: Vol. 35. pp. 67-84.

Allen. pp. 364-377.

- d. What increased knowledge of science makes us doubt the value of superstitious practices?

- (1) What sciences have contributed most to our knowledge of medicine and health conditions?

- (2) In what period did the greatest progress in the study of these sciences take place?

Ref. *Educ. Rev.* Vol. 52. pp. 338-348

2. What improvements have physicians made in their methods of discovering the causes of disease and the means of cure?

- a. What have we found out to be the causes of disease?

- (1) What did the ancient people believe about the causes of disease?

- (2) How have we learned the causes of diseases?

(a) Who was Pasteur?

(b) What valuable knowledge did he give us?

- (3) Do people now believe as the ancients did about the causes?
- (4) Which diseases are caused by microbes? Which by parasites? Which by the absence of certain elements in the food?

Ref. Hough and Sedgwick: pp. 471-474

Magnus: pp. 7-8.

Buck: pp. 236-246.

Walsh: *Makers of Modern Medicine*. pp. 304-314.

Outlines of European History, Part II; pp. 671-673.

Ritchie: *Primer of Sanitation*. pp. 6-9.

Public Health Nurse, Nov. 1922 "Louis Pasteur," pp. 568-574.

Jewett. pp. 165-173.

- b. What have we learned of the control and prevention of disease?

Ref. Hough and Sedgwick. pp. 481-482, 491, 493-4, 496-7, 499.

Ritchie. pp. 9-10, 16, 158-163.

Jewett. pp. 174-191.

- 3. What are the communicable diseases about which we have learned most?

- a. How much has been done in controlling malaria and yellow fever?

- (1) To what extent have these diseases hindered the work of people?

- (2) In early times, what was thought to be the cause of these diseases?

- (3) How did we learn to control them?

- (a) What people did valuable work in studying them?

- (b) What are the most successful methods used in controlling them?

- (c) How does the death rate of the present time compare with that of fifty years ago?

Ref. U. S. Senate Documents No. 118. "Scientific Work and Discoveries of Walter Reed," by J. R. Kean.

Carroll, J. "Brief Aetiology of Yellow Fever."

Gorgas, W. C. "General Directions Regarding Destruction of Yellow Fever Mosquito."

Outlook: Vol. 83. pp. 834-835.

Scribner's: Vol. 53. pp. 234-235.

Scient. Monthly: Vol. 1. pp. 209-237 (2nd part).

Bulletin of the Pan-American Union: Vol. 41. pp. 366-367.

World's Work: Vol. 16. pp. 10432-10439.

- b. Why has the death rate from tuberculosis been lowered so much?

- (1) How does our knowledge of the cause of tuberculosis differ from the belief of former times?
- (2) When was its cause discovered?
- (3) What men have done great work in studying this disease?
- (4) What change has there been in the method used to cure it?
- (5) What provisions are made for the care of tubercular children in hospitals to-day?
- (6) What is being done to prevent tuberculosis among school children?

Ref. Clemow. p. 452.

Outlines of European History: Part II. p. 672.

Buck. p. 390.

Walsh. *Makers of Modern Medicine* pp. 135, 175, 192.

Otis. pp. 23-28.

Ritchie. pp. 340-341.

Independent: Vol. 84. pp. 404-405.

Hough and Sedgwick. pp. 483-491.

Ritchie. *Primer of Sanitation.* pp. 53-70.

Jewett. pp. 192-212.

The Nation's Health: Nov. 15, 1922. pp. 693-696.

"Hospital and School for Tubercular Children."

Allen. pp. 229-251.

- c. What have we learned about small pox that has helped us in controlling the disease?

- (1) How serious has the disease been in the past?
- (2) When did the medical men first learn to tell it from the other diseases?
- (3) What methods have been used in the past to cure it?
- (4) Who learned how to prevent it?
- (5) How valuable are the means of prevention?

Ref. Clemow. pp. 412-413, 426, 428, 429.

Buck. pp. 43, 142, 220, 306.

Walsh. *Old Time Makers.* pp. 119-120.

Walsh. *Makers of Modern Medicine.* pp. 89-111.

Forum: Vol. 63, pp. 616-619, May, 1915.

Soc. Monthly: Vol. 1. pp. 66-85.

Current Lit.: Vol. 32. pp. 484.

Independent: Vol. 53. pp. 227-228.

Scient. American: Vol. 89. p. 31.

Annual Report of the Smithsonian Institute for 1900.

p. 341.

Hough and Sedgwick. p. 502.

- d. Why is it easy to prevent and control typhoid epidemics?

- (1) What causes typhoid fever?

- (2) What have we learned about preventing it?

- (3) When did we learn about it?

Ref. Gay. pp. 13-24.

Clemow. p. 469.

Walsh. *Makers of Modern Medicine*. pp. 188-189, 205.

Science: Vol. 44. p. 109.

Science: n.s. Vol. 47. pp. 481-482.

North Amer. Rev. Vol. 202. pp. 659-662.

Nat. Geographic Mag.: Vol. 20. pp. 743-747.

Hough and Sedgwick. pp. 491-494.

Ritchie. *Primer of Sanitation*. pp. 77-80.

Allen. p. 13.

e. Why is diphtheria less dangerous now than formerly?

(1) What treatments are used at the present time?

(2) Who discovered the present methods of treatment?

(3) How much has the death rate been reduced?

Ref. Buck. pp. 144, 405.

Clemow: pp. 131-132.

Walsh. *Makers of Modern Medicine*. pp. 328-334, 345-347.

Snyder. pp. 276.

Hough and Sedgwick. p. 503, 494-497.

Public Health Nurse: Nov., 1922. pp. 577-579.

“A Synopsis of Talks on Diphtheria.”

f. What progress has been made in the control of communicable diseases commonly known as “Children’s diseases?”

(1) What are these diseases?

(2) What has been the belief in the past about the seriousness of these diseases?

(3) How serious are these diseases?

(a) What is the annual death rate from measles?

Ref. Hough and Sedgwick. pp. 497-499.

Bulletin. *The School Child’s Health*. pp. 18-42.

Ritchie. *Primer of Sanitation*. pp. 48-49.

g. Why do people have less fear of plagues and epidemics now than formerly?

(1) How serious were the plagues of former times?

(a) How many deaths were caused?

(b) Why was the death rate so high?

(c) What were the diseases of these plagues?

(d) What was the effect upon the life and conditions of the people?

Ref. Cheney. pp. 96-111.

Hecker. *Epidemics of the Middle Ages*.

Hough and Sedgwick. pp. 556-557, 470.

Defoe, Daniel. *Journal of the Plague Years*.

Wilson. pp. 135-139.

(2) What means do we have for preventing and controlling epidemics and plagues?

- (a) What is the relation of pure milk, pure water and clean surroundings to the prevention of disease?
- (b) What organizations in government help to protect your health?
 - a' Of how many members does the Board of Health in your town consist? How was it chosen? In what ways does it protect your health?
 - b' In what ways does the State Board of Health protect you?
 - c' What does the national government do to protect your health?
 - d' What international organizations are striving to protect your health?
 - e' Give examples of city ordinances and of state and national laws which are intended to protect your health?
 - f' In what ways can you cooperate with your board of health?

Ref. Dunn. pp. 59, 64-68.

Hough and Sedgwick. pp. 550-561.

Richman & Wallach. pp. 142-147, 158-172.

Ritchie. *Primer of Sanitation*. pp. 172-186.

The American City, Nov. 1922. pp. 398-9,

"Public Health Administration in Asbury Park, N. J."

- (3) How do we guard against epidemics in our schools?
 - (a) What is the value of daily inspection?
- (4) How can we protect ourselves against disease even though we come in contact with it?
 - (a) How can we keep the body's resistance at a high level?
 - (b) What precautions should one take in the midst of an epidemic such as the recent influenza epidemic?

Ref. Wood, Thomas. *Health Essentials for School Children*. Inside of back cover.

Bulletin 98, North Carolina Board of Health. *Care of the Teeth*.

Bulletin No. 6—*Health Education Series of the Department of Interior*; inside cover, pp. 1-2.

Bulletin No. 7—*Health Education Series of the Dept. of Int.*, inside cover.

Ritchie. *Primer of Sanitation*. p. 14.

Hough and Sedgwick. pp. 374-378.

Richman and Wallach. pp. 183-187.

Allen. pp. 62, 212-216.

4. What improvements have been made in the training of physicians and nurses?
 - a. Who were the first physicians?
 - b. Where were the early schools of medicine?
 - c. Who were the teachers of medicine of early times?

Ref. Robinson. pp. 25, 31, 35.
Davis. pp. 77-80, 287.
Buck. pp. 17, 51-52, 70-72.
Gulick. pp. 287-8.
Godfrey. pp. 92-98.
Wilson. pp. 229-232.
 - d. What kind of training do we insist upon at the present time?
 - (1) What are the different schools of medicine or healing?
 - (2) How are the hospitals used in the training of our physicians and nurses?
 - e. How much have the hospitals helped in treating disease?
 - (1) What were the hospitals of ancient times like?
 - (a) How were they arranged?
 - (b) How much were they used?
 - (c) What patients were treated there?

Ref. Walsh. *Old Time Makers*: pp. 23-28, 296-298.
 - (2) What are the provisions for hospitals in our own community?
 - (a) Who controls or manages them?
 - (b) What people receive treatment at them?
 - (3) How do the hospitals of modern times compare in arrangement and usefulness with those of ancient times? With those of former times in our own country?

Ref. Jewett: 245-252.
5. What have been the improvements in the methods, materials and equipment which the physicians use?
 - a. Why are operations less dreaded now than formerly?
 - (1) How long have anaesthetics been used in surgery?
 - (a) What drugs are commonly used now for anaesthetics?
 - (b) How long has it been since they were first used?
 - (c) Who helped greatly in putting them into use?
 - (d) Did the people in ancient times use any medicine to deaden pain in operations?
 - Ref. Buck. pp. 253, 462.
Walsh. *Old Time Makers*. pp. 246, 295-296.
Robinson. pp. 237-246.
Outlines of European History. Part II. pp. 670-671.
Godfrey. p. 92.

- (2) Why do we pay so much attention to keeping wounds clean?

(a) How do we keep wounds clean?

(b) When did we first learn that wounds needed to be kept clean?

(c) What were the old methods of cleansing wounds?

(d) Of what importance has the discovery and use of antiseptics been?

Ref. *Outlines of European History.* Part II. pp. 672.

Walsh. *Old Time Makers.* pp. 17-18, 246-247.

- (3) What progress has been made in the practice of surgery?

(a) Who performed the operations in early times?

(b) Was it possible in early times to get special training in surgery?

(c) What is the value of Harvey's discovery?

(d) How do men at the present time prepare themselves for surgical work?

(e) What tools did the ancients have?

(f) Why are more tools used now?

Ref. Buck. pp. 8, 300, 306, 447, 448, 516, 423.

Outlines of European History. Part II. p. 672.
Robinson. pp. 97-118.

- b. Why do we insist upon a careful study of medicines and their uses?

(1) What drugs were commonly used in former times?

(2) What medicines were used by the pioneers of our own country?

(3) What changes have there been in the ways of preparing medicines?

(4) What training is given at present in preparing medicines?

Ref. *Scient. Amer. Supplement:* Vol. 81. pp. 391.
Gulick. 287.

6. To what extent has the attention paid to sanitation, improved health conditions?

- a. What has been done to improve conditions in factories?

Ref. Hughes. pp. 311-314.

O'Shea and Kellogg. pp. 259-267.

Nation's Health, Nov. 15, 1922. pp. 681.—“Clean Windows an Economy.”

Allen. pp. 218-228.

- b. What improvements have been made in home sanitation?

(1) What improvements in construction of houses have been made in the interests of health?

- (2) What improvements have been made in the handling of wastes?
 - (a) How were wastes disposed of in ancient times?
 - (b) How are inorganic wastes such as tin cans, ashes, etc., disposed of?
 - (c) How are garbage and other organic wastes disposed of?
- (3) How have methods of keeping food pure and of preserving food been improved?
- (4) What improvements have been made in sanitation of rural homes?

Ref. O'Shea and Kellogg. pp. 47-55, 102-107, 111-122, 182-184, 65-74, 78-91, 228-231.

Hough and Sedgwick. pp. 455-466.

Ritchie. *Primer of Sanitation*. pp. 188-192.

Jewett. pp. 253-256.

Bulletins: A Sanitary Closet Suitable for Rural Districts.

Public Health Bulletin No. 70.

Public Health Bulletin No. 11.

Methods of Sanitary Disposal without Sewers.

- c. What have cities done to improve sanitary conditions?
 - (1) What has been done to improve housing conditions?
 - (a) How were the poor housed in the cities of the middle ages?
 - (2) What improvements have been made in keeping streets clean?
 - (3) What provisions for the inspection of food and of places which handle food, have been made?

Ref. Hall. pp. 256-257.

O'Shea and Kellogg. pp. 14-23, 216-228.

Richman and Wallach. pp. 174-177.

Jewett. pp. 9-22, 30-44.

Gulick. pp. 15-16.

Davis. pp. 12-13.

- (4) What improvements have been made in the disposition of wastes?

- (a) How were wastes disposed of in former times?
 - (b) What are the most important modern methods of disposing of garbage, sewage, and other organic wastes? Ashes, tin cans, and other inorganic wastes?

Ref. O'Shea and Kellogg. pp. 113-114.

Jewett. pp. 45-57, 129-132.

American City. Nov. 1922. pp. 395-6. "Erie has Municipal Piggery."

Municipal and County Engineering. Nov. 1922. pp. 165-171. "Successful Operation of Direct Oxida-

tion Process of Sewage-Treatment at Allentown, Pa., pp. 192-197. "Troubles Experienced in Modern Methods of Garbage Disposal."

Municipal and County Engineering. Oct. 1922. pp. 120-122. "Notes on Two New Sewage Treatment Processes," pp. 148-158, "Recent Developments in Sewage Treatment." Gulick. pp. 17-18.

- (5) What improvements in methods of securing pure water have been made?
 - (a) What provision for a water supply was made by the Romans?
 - (b) By the cities of the middle ages?
 - (c) By cities in our country before we learned the importance of a pure water supply?
 - (d) When did we begin to pay serious attention to a pure water supply?
 - (e) How do some of our large cities secure a pure water supply?
 - (f) What methods are used in your own city?

Ref. O'Shea and Kellogg. pp. 175-187.

Jewett. pp. 81-132.

Dunn. pp. 60-62.

Ritchie. *Primer of Sanitation.* pp. 86-89.

Municipal and County Engineering. Oct. 1922. pp. 127-130. "Modern Water Filtration Plant

Built at Ashland, Kentucky." pp. 140-143.

"Pollution of Water Supply Sources."

Gulick. p. 18.

Johnson. p. 145.

Allen. pp. 190-200.

- (6) What progress has been made in securing a pure milk supply?

- (a) What have we learned about the dangers from impure milk? How many of the babies of the United States are fed on cows' milk?

- (b) When did people first begin to realize the need for clean milk?

- (c) What have we learned about means of keeping milk pure?

Why should a cow be well cared for and given a tuberculin test?

How should milk be handled in order to keep it clean?

What is "certified" milk?

What is "Pasteurized" milk?

- (d) What progress has been made in securing inspection of milk? What is the state law in regard to filled milk?
- (e) What has been done in our city to insure clean milk? Do we have any city ordinances in relation to milk? Should we have inspection of milk?

Ref. O'Shea and Kellogg. pp. 191-212.

Jewett. pp. 149-164.

Ritchie. *Primer of Sanitation*. pp. 153-157.

Allen. pp. 252-267, 25-29.

- d. What measures of sanitation have been undertaken to protect the travelling public?

Ref. Hughes and Sedgwick. pp. 544-548.

The Nation's Health, Nov. 15, 1916. pp. 645-647,
"Hygienic Measures of the Southern Pacific?"

What means of preventing disease have been developed?

- a. What is being done to prevent disease and loss of time among workers?

- (1) What is the relation between occupation and disease?
- (2) What is the value of physical examinations?
- (3) By what means are workers protected against accidents?
- (4) What methods are being used to lessen the amount of eyestrain?
- (5) What provision is made for the recreation of employees?
- (6) What progress in proper vocational placement is being made?
- (7) Why has the length of the laboring day been regulated?

Ref. Hough and Sedgwick. pp. 474-475.

The Nation's Health, Nov. 15, 1922. pp. 668-9. "The Care of Tuberculosis in Industry." pp. 663- "Great Britain's Place in Fatigue Elimination." p. 679, "Industrial Ophthalmology." p. 680- "The Functions of Medicine in Industry."

- b. To what extent have hospitals for the prevention of disease been developed?
- c. What are medical men doing to prevent disease?
- d. How is the public health movement preventing disease?
- e. To what extent may we secure immunity from disease by vaccination, inoculation, care of the teeth, etc.

Ref. *The Nation's Health*, Nov. 15, 1922. pp. 656-8, "Prevention of Simple Goiter in Man." pp. 666-7, "The Upbuilding of the Public Health Profession." *Amer. Jour. of Public Health*, Nov. 1922. "Should the Social Service Departments in Children's Hospitals be Developed into Departments for the Prevention of Disease?"
Allen. pp. 201-207, 268-282.

- f. What is being done in our schools to prevent disease and to secure better health among school children?
 - (1) In what ways has the school plant been made more sanitary and attractive?
 - (2) What are the particular problems of rural schools?
 - (a) How does the physical condition of rural school children compare with that of city children?
 - (3) To what extent is medical inspection and follow-up work preventing disease among school children?
 - (a) What are some of the outstanding health defects among children?
 - (b) What is being done to detect and remedy these?
 - (4) What is the value of wholesome play and recreation?
 - (5) What is the value of the hot lunch?

Ref. Wood, Thomas D. *Minimum Health Requirements for Schools.*

Wood, Thomas D. *Health Essentials for Rural School Children.* pp. 1-7.

Bulletin: Recreation and Rural Health.

Bulletin: Health Education. No. 7. pp. 8-9.

Bulletin: Hunt, C. W. School Lunches. pp. 1-3, 10-11.

Bulletin: Public Health, No. 116. Country School and Rural Sanitation.

The Nation's Health, Nov. 15, 1922. pp. 649-650.

"Detroit's School Health Plan." pp. 697-700.

"Greater Efficiency in Health Work in Schools," No. 11.

Extension Division, State University of Iowa.

Ayres, Williams, and Thomas. pp. 1-30, 65-76, 81-104, 209-211.

Richman and Wallach. pp. 148-157.

Allen. pp. 33-44, 139-183, 283-301.

- 8. Why have we been giving so much attention to caring for the health and preventing the ailments of little children?

- a. To what extent have we lowered the death rate among babies? At what age is the death rate highest? At what time of the year?
- b. What can we do to lower this death rate?
- c. What are the agencies in our state for caring for little children needing medical care?
- d. What national agencies are working in the interests of children's health?

Ref. Mangold. pp. 52, 53.

Hough and Sedgwick. p. 499.

Ritchie. *Primer of Sanitation.* pp. 154-155.

Allen. pp. 24-25.

- 9. What means, other than hospitals, doctors, and sanitary measures, have been provided to care for the health of the people?

- a. Why have parks and playgrounds been established in cities?
 - Ref. Dunn. p. 64.
Jewett. pp. 58-67.
O'Shea and Kellogg. p. 24.
Hough and Sedgwick. p. 549.
Nation's Health. Nov. 15, 1922. p. 201. St. Louis Recreation Program.
 - b. Why do we demand good fire and police protection?
 - c. Why are we insisting upon such strict observance of the quarantine law?
 - d. How are we preventing accidents?
10. What has been learned of the care of the teeth?
- a. How did the ancient and medieval people care for their teeth?
 - b. Who did the dental work in former times?
 - c. Why do we insist upon such careful attention to the teeth?
 - d. What are our means at present for caring for the teeth?
- Ref. Walsh. *Old Time Makers.* pp. 31-32, 313-335.
Allen. pp. 89-106.
Godfrey. p. 92.
Ryan. p. 168.

III. Summary.

1. What was the particular work of the following men?
Review the work of Pasteur, Koch, Jenner, Lister, Hunter, Harvey, Simpson. Point out clearly that the work has been done in rather recent times.
2. What are the diseases and conditions about which we know least?
3. What conditions most need further study?
4. What conditions have already been widely studied?
5. Why has the period of important discoveries and inventions been so recent?
6. Why has so little use been made of such information as the ancient people had learned?
7. What should be the attitude of every one toward public health?

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All the teachers who have participated in the experiments in these intermediate grades agree that the work is most interesting to themselves and to the pupils. They agree also that these problems can be kept within the understanding of the students of intermediate grades more easily than can the problems presented in the ordinary course of study for these grades. The subject matter presented affords an excellent preparation for the systematic and chronological treatment of history as it is begun in Grade VII.

There are, of course, many difficulties. The greatest of these arises out of the fact that few treatments of the problems are simple and concrete enough for use in these grades. It has required a great amount of labor to get together pictures and descriptions which were at all satisfactory. It is not always easy to get reliable information on a problem even for use by the teachers.

It is the judgment of the writers that no such plan should be attempted in the public schools until adequate books are available. Beginnings can be made, in an experimental way, as fast as proper reference material can be obtained. Good books can now be obtained for a few of the problems. Such a book is Sanford's *The Story of Agriculture in the United States*, published by D. C. Heath. The excellent pamphlets published by Dr. Harold Rugg illustrate the possibilities in producing this kind of material. It has been the experience of the writers, however, that even with such treatments as those in Sanford and in the bulletin produced by Dr. Rugg, the highest type of interest can be kept only where supplementary references are used.

CHAPTER XI

A PROPOSED SOCIAL SCIENCE COURSE FOR THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

HAROLD RUGG, EARLE RUGG, AND EMMA SCHWEPPÉ
The Lincoln School of Teachers College

In Chapter I needed changes in the content and organization of social science courses were pointed out. In the Lincoln School of Teachers College a new experimental course has been constructed in the attempt to provide these needed changes. In this chapter a brief outline is given of the entire course, together with a sample of the reading materials and the kinds of activities in which the pupils participate. The method by which the course is being constructed is described in Chapter XV. Many of the reasons for the changes which are illustrated in the sample materials are given in the last part of Chapter I. Since no restatement of these is given here, we suggest that the reader turn back to that discussion in case queries arise in studying the sample materials.

THE NEED FOR EXPERIMENTAL COURSES

After ten years of activity in reorganizing the junior-high-school courses, it is perfectly apparent that the most immediate need is for curriculum materials properly adapted to these grades. Although new histories, geographies, and community civics books are coming from the press month by month, they do not represent the kind of reorganization demanded by the protagonist of the new order. Those materials are merely "old wine in new bottles." Their covers and titles and section headings are new, but not the detailed materials and activities. Our group therefore decided to construct first of all a curriculum specifically for the junior-high-school grades. Our purpose is ultimately to prepare a complete scheme of materials and activities from the primary school through the senior high school. Hence this junior-high-school course not only serves the purpose of supplying illustrative material for the sev-

enth, eighth, and ninth grades, but it also provides the curriculum-maker with valuable data for the selection and arrangement of the courses below and above the intermediate school. From all stand-points these grades form a strategic level at which to make the first attack on the problem of curriculum reorganization.

GENERAL NATURE OF THE PROPOSED COURSE IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

The course we have prepared is frankly tentative and experimental. The basic materials from which it was made have been taught in mimeographed form in three grades of the Lincoln School of Teachers College during the past two and one-half years. It was clear that further progress depended on experimenting with a printed course which should be used in typical public schools. Accordingly, although our scientific studies have not been completed, and cannot be for two years more, a tentative edition of a three-years' course has been printed. This is being taught under our direction in 110 school systems; some of the schools use the material in only one of the three grades, seven, eight, and nine; some in two, and some in all three grades.

The course appears as a series of pamphlets¹ so constructed that each pamphlet deals with one group of contemporary problems.

A general outline of the three-year scheme can be economically given by enumerating the titles of the pamphlets and some of the major topics discussed.

The first two for each year, six in all, which are now being used in the schools, are as follows:

Seventh Grade—Pamphlet No. 1. *America and Her Immigrants*
—Who They Are, Where They Come From, Why They Come, Why They Came in the Past, How They Are Received, What They Do Here, How They Become Americans.

Seventh Grade—Pamphlet No. 2. *The City and Key Industries in Modern Nations*—Cities: How and Why They Grew; Transportation and City Life; Coal, A Crucial Industry; Ties between Farm and City; Resources and Industries of

¹*The Social Science Pamphlets: Essentials in Geography, History, and Civics.* Published privately by the authors and sold at a cost price to co-operating schools. These pamphlets are not for general commercial distribution at the present time.

America; Interdependence of Nations; Industrial and Agricultural Countries; Empires, Colonies, Ships, Resources.

Eighth Grade—Pamphlet No. 1. *The Westward Movement and the Growth of Transportation*—The Red Man's Continent; Why the Colonists Came; Life on the Different Frontiers; Across the Appalachian Barrier; The California Gold Rush; Natives and Immigrants as Pioneers; From Pack Horse to Pullman Car, From Flat Boat to Steamship.

Eighth Grade—Pamphlet No. 2. *The Mechanical Conquest of America*—Industrial Revolution in England; Hand-work to Machinery in America; Industry and Protective Tariffs; A Century of Invention; The Drift from Farm to City; Wages, Hours, Conditions of Work; Changes in Agricultural America, Seventy Years of Big Business.

Ninth Grade—Pamphlet No. 1. *Americanizing our Foreign-Born*—The Invasion of America; Colonization in Cities; The Immigrant at Work; The Immigrant at School, How He Becomes Naturalized, How He Affects American Life, How We Can Make Him a Good American Citizen.

Ninth Grade—Pamphlet No. 2. *Resources and Industries in a Machine World*—Can a Nation Live by Itself? Can the United States? England? Russia? China? France? Germany? The Smaller Nations? Growth of Cities—Industrial Revolution, Interdependence of City and Country, Transportation—the Key Industry, How One Worker Depends on Another, From Home to Factory, Concentration in Industry and Business.

HYPOTHESES UPON WHICH THE PROPOSED COURSE IS CONSTRUCTED

The proposed course is based upon certain important hypotheses. The reader should have these in mind in studying the sample materials.

First: Current modes of living, contemporary problems and their historical backgrounds can be learned more effectively through one unified social science curriculum than through the separate school subjects, history, geography, civics, and economics. A general course brings to the teacher easily and at the time they are needed, all of the necessary materials, irrespective of how they have been catalogued in the past.

Let us make no mistake about this proposal, however. *It is not an attempt to merge the established subjects.* Rather than that,

the procedure we have employed starts with no interest in the established order. It completely disregards current courses. Only one criterion is employed in selecting the content of the course: its contribution to present living. The point should be made emphatically, therefore, that our procedure represents a scheme of curriculum-making which has no part in the movement to merge all of the content of the present school subjects.

Second: Each major topic of the course must be of established social value to the rank and file of our people. Unless a topic can be proved to contribute definitely to an understanding of current modes of living and problems and issues of contemporary life, it can find no place in such a course. Hence much of the content of present school courses is not found in this proposed curriculum. On the other hand, a wealth of new material is included with which children hitherto have not been permitted to deal.

Third: An objective analysis of social needs facilitates the assignment to each of the major phases of life, its proper amount of attention in the curriculum; the traditional method of opinion cannot do so except by chance. Just what the permanent problems and issues of our generation are is being determined by analytical methods. If the analysis is sound, then the question of distribution of time to social, industrial, and political matters can be experimented upon in the schools. Eventually we shall have a curriculum in which the basis of emphasis will be objective investigation and experimentation instead of prejudice and tradition as it is at present.

Fourth: Each topic and sub-topic of the course shall be illustrated by detailed episodes and by a wealth of maps, graphs, and pictorial material far in excess of the present use of them. Sufficient reading material can probably be best provided by two methods, the long story and the short episode. Into the long story can be woven a rich treatment of all aspects of a broad group of topics—for example, our 27 page story of “How Carlo and His Family Came to America” in our pamphlet (VII-1) “America and Her Immigrants.” The *episode*, that is, the anecdote, the story of some actual human happening, is employed to illustrate a particular matter. For the succession of brief and abstract state-

ments of *fact* in our present books is to be substituted the wide use of meaningful *episodes*. This is one of the contributions of our materials on which we should like special consideration and discussion.

In any selection of a few pages from the Pamphlets it is impossible to demonstrate completely our use of the episode. In this *Yearbook*, however, we must rely on such a sample. It is, of course, impossible to provide an illustration of the use of the long story.

The sample pages illustrate the way maps and graphs are closely correlated with the context. This is done (*a*) through questions directly referring the pupil to the figures and so guiding his reading of them; (*b*) through questions which lead him to think with the facts these figures furnish; and (*c*) by so arranging the narrative that references to the figures and use of them is made as the pupil reads. To show growth and change in industrial tools or ways of travel, etc., a series of pictures with detailed captions are often provided which tell a quick moving story. Our use of this is not illustrated in the sample pages.

Fifth: *The reading materials and the exercises should be set so as to stimulate analysis and reasoning.* Some of the devices in the organization of curriculum materials which provide practice in thinking are the constant use of questions, and their close relation to facts which are needed for their answer; the handling of facts; the solving of set problems; the arousal of the critical attitude; the analysis of episode and graphic material to determine principal points; the drawing of generalizations and conclusions; the making of summaries. These devices are all illustrated in some fashion or other in the sample pages.

Sixth: *Only that historical background of a particular problem, institution or activity shall be taught which is necessary to an adequate understanding of the problem; probably the most effective way to teach is by a series of sharp contrasts.* History is to "move rapidly" in these grades. Only a part of the story is to be told the first time over, more being added in successive years of the course. One era, one condition, one stage of a movement is to be sharply contrasted with another and especially with the current order of things.

Seventh: Historical backgrounds will be clearer if the history of only one set of related topics is traced at one time. This amounts to saying that in the junior high school we should teach history longitudinally instead of by periods, or transversely. That is to say, we should trace directly to the present day, the development of a particular activity or group of activities. For example, Pamphlet No. 1 of the Eighth-Grade Series sketches the entire westward movement and the growth of transportation, giving special attention to the last 125 years. This requires about 10 school weeks. Pamphlet No. 2 takes another 10 weeks to sketch the industrial and business history of America, weaving the chief strands of the westward movement and the growth of transportation into the warp of the story thus far accumulated. Pamphlet No. 3 traces the cultural history to the present day, showing what the American people were doing with their leisure time while they were conquering the natural resources of a continent. It, too, gathers up the outstanding threads of the first two pamphlets as it goes along, by constant back reference and recall.

Pamphlet No. 4 does the same thing for the study of municipal and national government in the great American experiment in democracy, and Pamphlet No. 5 repeats the procedure for the development of America's relations with other countries.

The immediate reaction of the vigorous protagonist of things as they are is that this leads to learning historical movements in isolation—that it is “compartment learning” and that children will not get a feeling for the total life of our people at any one time. This is indeed a point of issue. We believe we meet this objection adequately and *in accordance with the manner in which pupils learn most naturally* by our method of weaving into any discussion the important facts and relationships taken up earlier which should be present in the pupil's mind at that time.

Neither we nor exponents of the present “block” method have any evidence as to which is the better. *What we propose to do is to collect evidence*, regarding our own procedure in the meantime as entirely experimental. In the light of present psychological thought, however, our method has strong claim to careful consideration. This hypothesis is closely bound up with the next one.

Eighth: One problem or topic, or at most one restricted group of problems and topics, should be considered definitely and thoroughly at one time. Present materials are diffuse. They take up a little of everything and handle no one matter thoroughly. Our sample unit partially illustrates the method of considering, from different angles, one matter at a time. Perhaps the best illustration of the present point of issue is supplied by Pamphlet No. 2 of the Eighth-Grade Series, "The Mechanical Conquest of America."

HOW SHALL SUCH MATERIALS BE USED TO PROVIDE SUFFICIENT PUPIL-ACTIVITY?

The last and, we believe, the most important problem before us deals with a matter that cannot be illustrated clearly in the reading materials. At the present time we are attempting to design a method of using the materials in the classroom through which the pupils will take the initiative and assume responsibility for learning. By this method at least half of the time will be devoted to individual work. In other words, we are trying to devise a combined individual-group method of using the new materials which will keep the general direction of the work week by week in the hands of the teacher, but in which a large share of the leadership and responsibility of the class hour will fall upon the pupils. Reports of these experiments will be made from time to time in educational articles and monographs.

A SAMPLE UNIT OF MATERIAL

In considering this illustrative material, then, bear in mind the foregoing statements of our hypotheses. This sample unit appears in the second Eighth-Grade pamphlet, as pages 148-161, and 167-171. It has been preceded in that pamphlet by the following materials: I. "A Brief View of Important Changes in Industry" (pages 1-14); II. "The English Industrial Revolution, 1700-1922" (pages 15-38); III. "How the American Industrial Revolution Began, 1790-1820" (pages 39-57); IV. "How Congress Has Helped Our Manufacturers: the Protective Tariff" (pages 58-70); V. "The Nineteenth Century: The Great Age of Invention"

(pages 71-98); VI. "Inventions that Helped to Bind Our People Together" (pages 99-137); VII. "There Was a Revolution in Power, Too" (pages 138-148).

VIII. "CHANGES I THINK MUST SURELY HAVE OCCURRED
AFTER 1830"

(Do not read ahead before you do this exercise)

I

Try to imagine yourself living in the Eastern United States, say, in 1830. Recall what part of the country our people were living in at that time, how few cities there were, and in general about where they were. Recall to what extent factories had come into existence. Picture to yourself how men farmed then, the kinds of implements they used, and what their daily lives consisted of. Remember the time is 1830. Think about how people traveled from place to place in those days; how they communicated with each other; how long it took to send messages; where they got their food; how much of it they raised themselves; to what extent they made their own clothes. Imagine how the streets and stores of the cities must have looked and the kinds of things you could buy in the stores; how the streets were paved and lighted, and the vehicles that were used. Try to get a clear picture of the life of the people of that time.

II

Now think back over the stories of the Industrial Revolution, especially of the revolutionary inventions made in America after 1830. Turn back and skim rapidly through these accounts if you wish, provided you take only a few minutes.

DO NOT READ AHEAD, however, for we wish this exercise to be a real game for you.

III

YOUR PROBLEM

Now, having in mind the way people lived in 1830, the inventions that came after that time, and the westward movement by which our people settled the land of the United States, try to figure out the important changes that must surely have come after 1830 in the lives of the people. Write these out in a series of sentences. State an important change you think would be bound to come in the way people provided themselves with food, shelter, and clothing; in the way they spent their time; how the distribution of population on the land must have changed, etc. Set down any important changes you can think of that would necessarily have come after 1830.

After you have finished writing your sentences, skim over the next 10 or 15 pages and see if you have covered the important changes.

IX. THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION CHANGED THE LIVES OF THE PEOPLE

PEOPLE MASSED TOGETHER IN CITIES

The century from 1820 to 1920 witnessed the most spectacular change in the manner of living of a great people that the world has ever known. In 1790, to go back a little, 90 percent of the American people were engaged in farming. That is, nine out of every ten men, women, and children lived on farms. Most of them lived on their own farms; few families were renters in those days, for land was to be had for settling upon it. The story of the restless westward trek of our people is already familiar to you.

By 1920, however, only 30 percent of our people were engaged in farming. This means that at least 60 percent of a rapidly growing population had been by some "hocus-pocus" released from farm work and were engaged in "city" occupations. Fig. 28 makes the contrast clear. How could such a

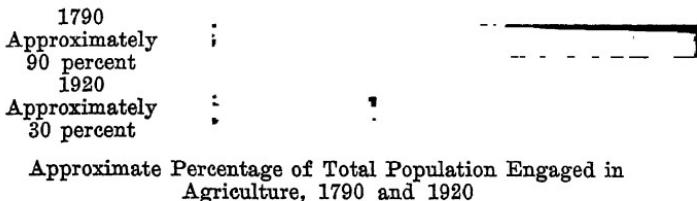


Fig. 28

change have come about? The population graph of Fig. 29 shows less than 4 million people here in 1790, and 105 million in 1920—a gain of 101 million. Yet in 1920, 30 million people, roughly, were raising enough food to supply themselves and 70 million others, while in 1790 nine out of every ten persons were engaged in raising food.

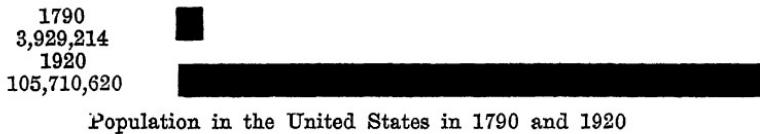


Fig. 29

How did such changes come about? What were the causes?

Review at this point the maps of the Westward Movement (Pamphlet No. 1, Fig. 10, pages 60-61). Note that by 1820 the frontier was already pushed beyond the confines of the Ohio Valley; the Mississippi River had been crossed in some places. But remember that the frontier divided off the land where there were only two persons living to the square mile. At the present time in modern countries people are living very much closer together. In England, for instance, there is an average of 400 people to the square

mile. But even in 1820 there were medium-sized cities: Boston had 43,000; New York had 123,000; Philadelphia 112,000; Baltimore 62,000. Charleston, S. C., with its 24,000, and New Orleans, with its 27,000, were typical of the slower growth of cities in the South. Notice, however, how the population kept growing denser behind the frontier, and the cities filled in. By 1850 New York was over 500,000; Boston 136,000; Philadelphia 340,000; other smaller cities had sprung up all over the Ohio and Mississippi valleys.

By 1890 the settlements had moved clear across the continent, the frontier had entirely disappeared, and cities were taking the leadership as far west as Illinois, Indiana, and Michigan.

Do you think the cities of 75 to 100 years ago were like ours of to-day? Would you have seen fine clusters of lights shining over smooth macadam boulevards in 1830 in New York, or in 1845 in Chicago, or in 1856 or 1860 in Minneapolis? Would you have climbed 20 or 40-story skyscrapers in electric elevators, or whizzed easily about in fine gasoline cars? Read these accounts of eye-witnesses of cities in those earlier times. The first story pictures Chicago when it was a muddy little town of 4000 people (about 1840).

"Chicago looked very bare on the high prairie above the lake. It was Mr. William Cullen Bryant who said that it had the look of a huckster in his shirt-sleeves.

"'There it is,' said Samson. 'Four thousand, one hundred and eighty people live there. It looks like a sturdy two-year-old.'

"The houses were small and cheaply built and of many colors. Some were unpainted. Near the prairie they stood like people on the outer edge of a crowd, looking over one another's shoulders and pushing in a disordered mass toward the center of interest. Some seemed to have straggled away as if they had given up trying to see or hear. So to one nearing it the town had a helter-skelter look.

"Our travelers passed rough boarded houses with grand-looking people in their dooryards and on their small porches—men in broadcloth and tall hats and ladies in silk dresses. It was six o'clock and the men had come home to supper. As the horsemen proceeded, larger buildings surrounded them, mostly two stories high. There were some stores and houses built of red brick. Beyond the scatter of cheap, wooden structures they came to streets well laid out and crowded and busy and 'very soft,' to quote a phrase from the diary. Teams were struggling in the mud, drivers shouting and lashing. Agents for hotels and boarding-houses began to solicit the two horsemen from the plank sidewalks. The latter were deeply impressed by a negro in scarlet clothes, riding a horse in scarlet housings. He carried a scarlet banner and was advertising in a loud voice the hour and place of a great land sale that evening.

"A sound of many hammers beating upon boards could be heard above the noises of the street and behind all was the constant droning of a big steam saw and the whir of the heavy stones in the new grist mill. It was

the beginning of that amazing diapason of industry which accompanied the building of the cities of the West."²

By 1847 Chicago had grown to a city of 10,000, but its appearance was much the same.

"Of all the cities that Cyrus McCormick had seen in his 3,000-mile journey, Chicago was unquestionably the youngest, the ugliest, and the most forlorn. It lacked the comforts of ordinary life, and many of the necessities. For the most part, it was the residuum of a broken land boom; and most of its citizens were remaining in the hope that they might persuade some incoming stranger to buy them out.

"The little community, which had absurdly been called a city ten years before, had at this time barely ten thousand people—as many as are now employed by a couple of its department stores. It was exhausted by a desperate struggle with mud, dust, floods, droughts, cholera, debt, panics, broken banks, and a slump in land values. Other cities ridiculed its ambitions and called it a mudhole. Its harbor, into which six small schooners ventured in 1847, was obstructed by a sand-bar. And the entire region, for miles back from the lake, was a dismal swamp—the natural home of frogs, wild ducks, and beavers. . . .

"In Chicago, there was at this time no Board of Trade. The first wheat had been exported nine years before—as much as would load an ordinary wagon. There was no paved street, except one short block of wooden paving. The houses were rickety, unpainted frame shanties, which had not even the dignity of being numbered. There was a school, a jail, a police force of six, a theatre, and a fire-engine. But there was no railroad, nor telegraph, nor gas, nor sewer, nor stock-yards. The only postoffice was a little frame shack on Clark Street, with one window and one clerk; and one of the lesser hardships of the citizens was to stand in line here on rainy days."³

Now away behind the frontier the eastern cities had become very large. New York, with its 500,000 people in 1850, was a great metropolis, at least for those days. Some parts of such cities were, of course, much like the whole of crude western ones. The next description shows that; it also shows that even by the middle of the century there was growing up in America an astonishing commercial civilization. And even then American city life was characterized by strong emphasis on size and speed. Hotels were mammoth. Bigger and more expensive buildings had to be put up; there was a clamor for setting a pace.

" . . . A few minutes brought us over to the lights on the New York side—a jerk or two up a steep incline—and we were rattling over a most abominable pavement, plunging into mud-holes, squashing through snow-heaps in ill-lighted, narrow streets of low, mean-looking, wooden houses, of which

²Bacheller, Irving: *A Man For The Ages*, pages 303-304. The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis, 1919.

³Casson, Herbert N.: *Cyrus McCormick, His Life and Work*, pages 68-69, 70.

an unusual proportion appeared to be lager-beer saloons, whiskey-shops, oyster-houses, and billiard and smoking establishments.

"The crowd on the pavement were very much what a stranger would be likely to see in a very bad part of London, Antwerp, or Hamburg, with a dash of the noisy exuberance which proceeds from the high animal spirits that defy police regulations and are superior to police force, called 'rowdiness.' The drive was long and tortuous; but by degrees the character of the thoroughfares and streets improved. At last we turned into a wide street with very tall houses, alternating with far humbler erections, blazing with lights, gay with shop-windows, thronged in spite of the mud with well-dressed people, and pervaded by strings of omnibuses—Oxford Street was nothing to it for length. At intervals there towered up a block of brickwork and stucco, with long rows of windows lighted up tier above tier, and a swarming crowd passing in and out of the portals, which were recognized as the barrack-like glory of American civilization—a Broadway monster hotel. More oyster-shops, lager-beer saloons, concert-rooms of astounding denominations, with external decorations very much in the style of the booths at Bartholomew Fair—churches, restaurants, confectioners, private houses! again another series—they cannot go on expanding forever. The coach at last drives into a large square, and lands me at the Clarendon Hotel."⁴

But the crudeness of life even in a city of 200,000 is brought out forcibly by this account of things in New York in 1825.

"... There was a superintendent of streets, but he had little to do with cleaning them. Every occupant of a dwelling house or other building, every owner of a vacant lot on any paved street, must, twice a week, from April to December, scrape and sweep the pavement before his premises as far as the middle of the roadway, must gather the dirt in a heap, and on it must place the ashes and rubbish brought out from his house or cellar. The city was responsible for nothing but the removal of the rubbish and the sweeping of paved streets before unoccupied houses at the cost of the owner. Between December and April no street-cleaning was attempted, and the sole scavengers became the hogs, who were suffered to range at large, provided they had rings in their noses.

"There was a rude sort of fire department, consisting of the chief engineer and his assistants, of the firewardens, and the firemen, hosemen, hook-and-ladder men, whose duty it was to drag the engines to the burning building and attach the hose. Each firewarden was assigned to a particular engine, was responsible for the supply of water, and formed the citizens in two lines stretching from his engine to the nearest pump or well. Up one line went the full buckets; down the other came the empty ones. These buckets belonged to the citizens. Each occupant of a house was still required to have in his front hall the old-fashioned leather bucket marked with his initials, the number of his house and the name of his street. If his house had three or

⁴Russell, William H.: *My Diary, North and South*, pages 8-9. T. O. H. P. Burnham, Boston, 1863.

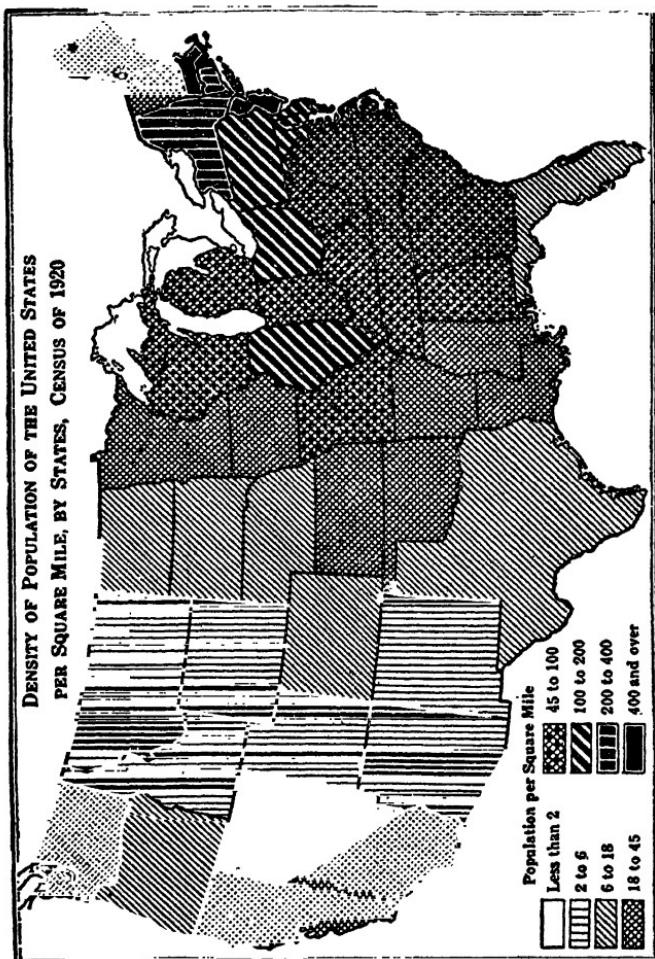


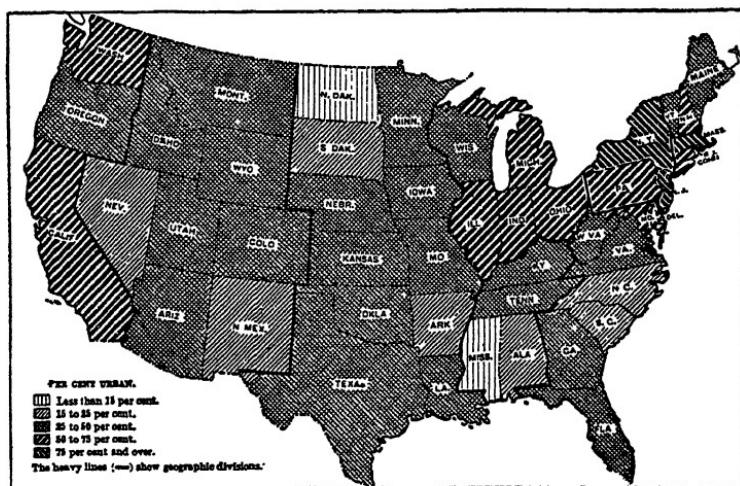
Fig. 30

less fireplaces, he must keep one bucket; three to six fireplaces, two buckets; six to nine fireplaces, four buckets; which on the alarm of fire he must put out on the sidewalk to be carried off by the first passer-by. After the fire had been extinguished the owner must seek his property at the City Hall. At night the watch cried the name of the street in which the burning building was, and every occupant of a house put a lighted candle in his window."⁶

⁶McMaster, John B.: *A History of the People of the United States*, Vol. V., pages 124-125. D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1917.

WHERE AMERICANS ARE LIVING TO-DAY

And what was the situation in 1920? How densely populated was the country then? Figs. 30 and 31 give you the facts to compare with the maps for 1790 and 1820. Are there any states where less than 2 persons are living to the square mile (Fig. 30)? Where? What do you know about the lay of the land, the soil, and the climate in that region that would account for this? Are there any states where 400 people are living to the square mile? Which ones? Why do you think so many are living there? Such a dense population must mean that people are living in houses that are close together; perhaps the people are crowded into apartment buildings. Certainly it must mean that there are many cities there.



This map shows the percentage of the population that is urban in the different states⁶

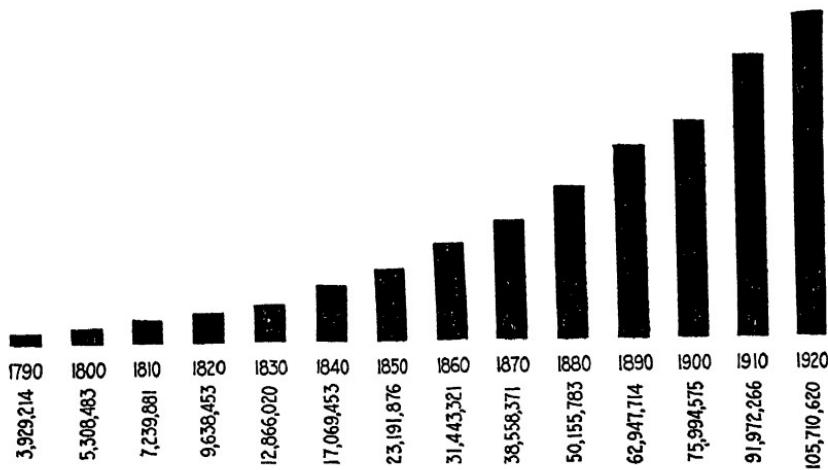
FIG. 31

In general, where would you say people are living most closely together in America? Where is the next most densely populated region? Where the least densely populated?

Study Figs. 30 and 31 together. What are one or two comparisons that you could make? How do the areas where the population is most dense compare with those in which a large percent is urban?

⁶From "Report on Population," Vol. I., 1920. U. S. Census.

THE RAPID GROWTH OF OUR POPULATION



Population in the United States 1790 to 1920

FIG. 32

One of the most important things to remember about the period of the Industrial Revolution, 1750-1922, is that it has been a time of very rapid growth in population—more rapid than at any other time in the history of the world. This was true of practically all European countries as well. For centuries before they had been quite stagnant, keeping almost the same from generation to generation. Then suddenly, about 1800, the great change came.

The United States is one of the most striking examples of this change. It is perhaps the most interesting one because of its vast resources and large amounts of free land. The bar graphs of Fig. 32 show the steps by which the population climbed. Notice how after 1830 the bars lengthen out at an increasing rate.

CITY POPULATIONS HAVE GROWN WITH
GENERAL POPULATION

Notice from Fig. 33 how the city population grew as the general population increased. The full length of the bar in each of the years given represents the entire population at the time the census was taken. The part that is blackened represents the number of people living in places of 8000 or more population. When did cities of such sizes make their appearance to any considerable extent? In 1790? 1820? 1840? When? How do you know that?

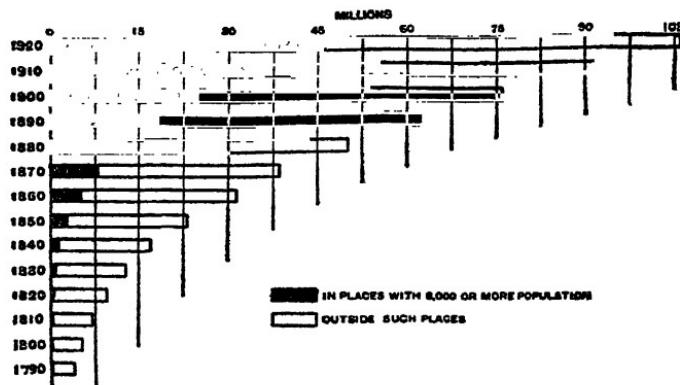


FIG. 33

About what proportion of all our people are now in cities as large as 8000.

Remember, though, that we would call communities only as large as 2500 distinctly "urban" places. So, really, there are many millions more of our people besides that number who are not living on farms.

CITY POPULATIONS IN ALL INDUSTRIAL COUNTRIES HAVE GROWN RAPIDLY SINCE 1800

This startling growth of cities is not by any means confined to America. It has been true of every industrial country since 1800. How clearly Fig. 34 shows this!

PERCENT OF POPULATION IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES IN CITIES OF MORE THAN 10,000 - 1801-1851-1891

	1801	1851	1891
England	21.3	39.5	61.7
Scotland	17.0	32.2	49.9
France	(No data)	25.5	37.4
Prussia	7.25 (1816)	10.63 (1849)	30.0
United States	3.8	12.0	27.6
Hungary	5.4	9.1	17.6
Austria	4.4	5.8 (1843)	15.8
Russia	1.8 (1815)	2.2 (1856)	3.6 (1897)
India			6.4

FIG. 34

In which countries were more than one-fifth of the people living in cities of 10,000 or more in 1801? Would you say that a country with such a population was strictly urban?

In 1891 three-fifths of England's population were living in cities. Which ones were less than 25 percent urban? A recent estimate tells us that nine-tenths of England's population live in cities now! Many folks think we are crowded here in the United States with only half of our people in cities. Yet think of the difference—whereas we have an average of 20 persons to the square mile, England has about 400. So you see our problem of cities is no greater, probably not so great as that of other countries.

HOW RECENTLY AND HOW RAPIDLY HAVE AMERICAN CITIES THEMSELVES GROWN?

On page 158 is a graph that answers this question for fourteen of our important cities.

Not all these cities, however, grew in the same way. Some are old port or river cities, like Boston or Louisville. Note how slowly these two grew at first when pioneer conditions prevailed, before machines and factories came, and before transportation was improved. But when railroads reached the Ohio Valley, when the reaper began to sell in Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Kentucky, and when steamboats plied up and down the Ohio—then Louisville grew and grew rapidly. See how steep the curve becomes after 1840.

Then there's the city that builds up around a new industry. Lowell is a good example. Started suddenly in the 1820's by the establishment of the textile mills, its population has mounted steadily decade by decade.

Do cities grow up where unusual natural resources are discovered? Yes, indeed. Scranton, an older city, Tulsa and Los Angeles, new-born cities, are fine examples of this. Scranton was founded in 1840 and made very slow progress until about 1860. Then it boomed! Why? Vast anthracite coal deposits in and about Scranton came into great demand for use in the expanding steel business. The Civil War was on between the North and the South. Steel and iron in enormous quantities were being demanded for both war and peace-time purposes. So, the coal business thrived and Scranton grew.

A real boom city, do you ask for? Look at Tulsa. Less than 1000 people in 1900—over 70,000 in 1920! How could it happen? What was the magnet to draw 70,000 human beings to such a locality—for it wasn't especially favored by transportation facilities, water power, or the like? Oil! Is there any natural resource of more crucial importance to our industrial civilization than oil? Perhaps you think coal is; but consider how difficult it is to get the coal from the earth and how easy and cheap it is to get oil. In 1904 large deposits of oil were discovered in Tulsa. Immediately people flocked there as they did in the California and Alaskan gold rushes. During that year 14,000,000 barrels of oil were taken from the earth. Eleven years later, 1915, 97,915,243 barrels! And along with the discovery of oil, came that of natural gas.

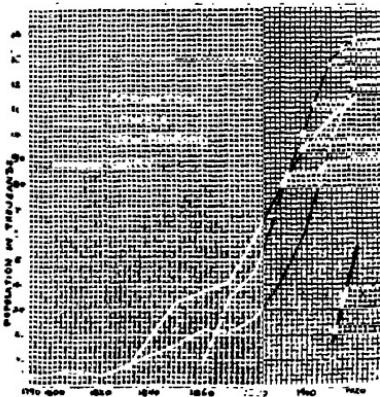
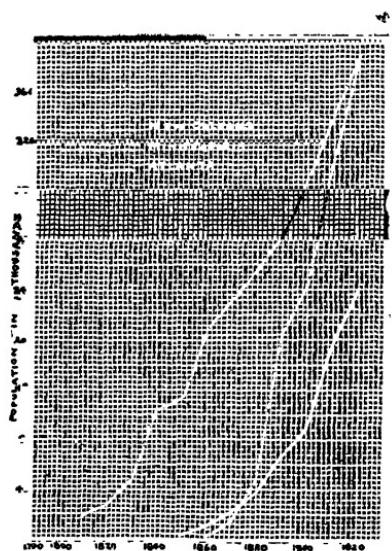
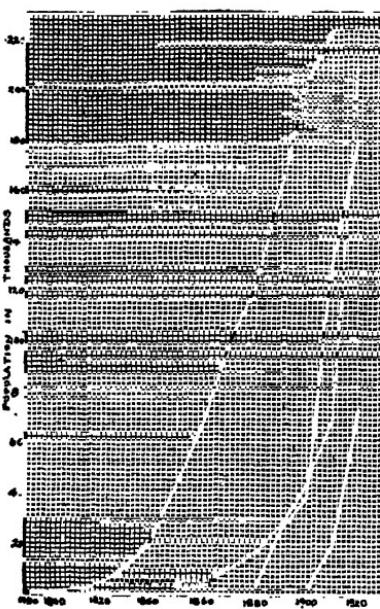
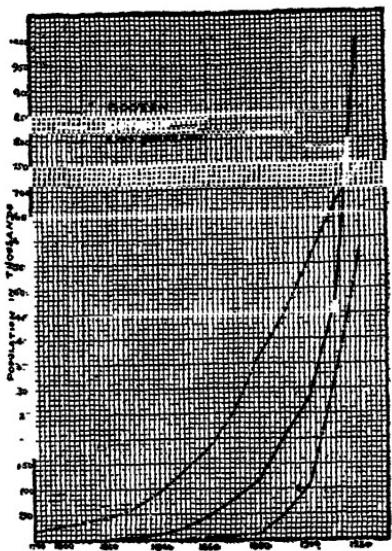


FIG. 35

Much the same sort of circumstances account for the astonishing growth of Los Angeles since 1890. Two things help to explain it; first, the large amount of irrigation that has developed recently; and second, the rapid increase in the citrus fruit business around Los Angeles that came with it. In 1900 there were 25,657 acres about Los Angeles cultivated under irrigation; by 1910, the number had increased to 39,352 acres.

But one of the greatest single causes of the growth of population in the Los Angeles district has been the sharp increase in the amount of oil produced there. Note these startling figures:

1899.....	2,000,000 barrels
1912.....	86,450,000 barrels
1918.....	99,731,177 barrels

The most rapid advance came between 1911 and 1912.

Akron and rubber! From way back before the Civil War there had been a little town at Akron, Ohio. In 1860 it contained a few thousand souls. In 1900 it was still a small city of 40,000. Twenty years later it housed 209,000 people! What was the secret? More than anything else, rubber and the rubber-tire industry. As early as 1869 Dr. B. F. Goodrich founded his rubber business, which was the nucleus of the great industry that has grown up in that place. Can you tell why the population should have grown so slowly until 1900 and then have mounted so rapidly—especially after 1910? Look back at Fig. 35.

As regards the other cities we leave to you the task of finding out why they grew as they did. Detroit? Long slow development until 1900—and then tremendous progress. Why? Birmingham, almost a straight steep growth from 1880 to 1922. Why?

Gary—a made-to-order city—a bleak sand dune on the shore of Lake Michigan in 1905; 70,000 people in 1920. Why?

Startling Multiplication of Features of City and Industrial Life

Growth of population 1

Note how much more rapidly urban and industrial activities have grown than population, large as that is.

No. of times faster, than population, each of the following has grown

No. wage earners

No. miners

No. city dwellers

No. clerks, salesmen and typists

No. corporations

No. banks

No transport workers

FIG. 3

FIG. 36

Now we have already learned that, although population grew rapidly, railways, manufactures, and the production of great natural resources grew still faster. Fig. 36 shows the ratios. Compare the lengths of the different bars with the population bar. Study each item carefully and see if you can explain the different ones.

EXERCISES FOR PUPILS ON OTHER CITIES

To the Teacher: With these illustrations in hand, we suggest that you assign to individual pupils the task of making a graph showing the increase in population of particular cities since their beginning, or since 1790 for some, and of reporting to the class the causes for the growth of these cities. Statistics of populations for particular cities are to be found in Vol. I, *Population*, of the 1920 Census Report, Bureau of Census, Washington, D. C.

Assign cities which represent different types of growth, e. g., port cities showing a slow, steady growth; perhaps a rubber city like Akron, Ohio; an automobile city like Detroit; an inland city like Denver; a boom (oil) city like Tulsa, Okla. cities that have "petered out"; etc. Bring out the causes that account for the growth and decline of cities.

Your teacher will assign you cities on which to collect data and make graphs. Follow the directions she gives you.

Following the foregoing units, the pupil meets next: X. "The Concentration of People in Cities: What Caused It?" (pages 162-166). In this, four causes are sketched. The fourth illustrates our use of episodes; so we give it verbatim:

4. TO WHAT EXTENT DID THE GROWTH OF CITIES DEPEND ON THE DISCOVERY OF GREAT NATURAL RESOURCES OF IRON AND OIL?

Let us see, though—manufactures? To manufacture, one must have raw materials. To make reapers, one must have iron and wood and other things. To make printing presses, one must have iron. To make engines, one must have iron and other metals. To make the engine go, one must have gasoline. Gasoline, of course, is made from oil. So iron and oil appear to be pretty important in these days.

Now if manufactures depend on iron, then the growth of cities too must have been effected, indeed hastened, by the discovery of iron and oil. Look back at Fig. 35. Do you notice how the different cities grew very fast after 1870? There were several good reasons for that. One, of course, was the close of the Civil War and the great demand that followed for manufactured goods. Another big one was that many of the inventions had become commercially practicable and were finding their way into use in manufacturing. But there is another very important reason: the discovery of great stores of iron ore in the North Central States, Minnesota especially. The United States is fortunate in being the greatest iron store-house of the earth. We have 20 percent of all the iron now known to be deposited in the earth. How long

have we known about our deposits? Most of them have been known only since 1860-1885; they lie at the western end of Lake Superior.

Since early colonial days Americans had known of small deposits along the Atlantic Coastal Plain—as far west as Pennsylvania. But between 1860 and 1885 pioneers of the northwest woods made three important discoveries of huge beds of iron ore. Not only were the deposits large, but they were easy to dig out, lying right on the surface of the ground. Here are stories of the way they were found.

“Until fifty years ago, our iron ore came from the Eastern States, mainly from Pennsylvania and New York. The famous Cornwall mines, near Lebanon, Pennsylvania, were the richest in America. They remained in the Grubb and Coleman families for more than a hundred and fifty years, and yielded nineteen million tons. The best New York mines were at Port Henry, on Lake Champlain, turning out fifteen million tons in the last hundred years. Until the Civil War, there was enough ore to supply the demand. Then the output of iron almost doubled in three years, prices were trebled, the tariff was raised, and the railroad boom began.

“THE SEARCH FOR IRON ORE”

“‘We must have more ore,’ cried the excited iron-makers, confused by this unforeseen rush of prosperity.

“The answer to the cry came from the far western end of Lake Superior—from a roadless, houseless wilderness, inhabited only by the bear, the moose, the wolf, and a few wandering tribes of the Dakotas. Strictly speaking, the answer came nearly twenty years before the question, but as usual the iron-makers at first did not hear it or did not believe it. It came, as always, from an unexpected quarter and not from the regular authorities on the subject. ‘Impossible!’ said the men of technical knowledge. ‘Absurd!’ said the men of money. But the halloo of the few pathfinders persisted, until one by one the suspicious men of iron and steel began to follow the rough trail that led to boundless wealth. To-day that halloo has become a ‘Te Deum,’ chanted at every gathering of the American Iron and Steel Association.

“The Christopher Columbus of the Lake Superior ore region was Philo M. Everett, an adventurous citizen of Jackson, Michigan. The following story of his memorable journey, which deserves to be ranked with the ride of Paul Revere, has been gleaned from manuscripts loaned by Peter White, of Marquette, the only survivor of those heroic days.

“In the spring of 1845 Mr. Everett became friendly with a couple of Indians—a half-breed named Louis Nolan and an old chief, Manjikijik, who offered to guide him to ‘a great mountain of solid iron.’ At first the proposed trip was laughed at by the citizens of Jackson, but Everett persevered and organised a company of thirteen subscribers to supply the necessary funds. In spite of the unfortunate reputation of this particular number, there has never been a trip that was luckier, either for them or for the nation.

"Taking four men and his Indian guides, Everett travelled north to Lake Superior, bought a small sailing skiff, and coasted westward.

"I was most of the time with Indians of the wildest nature," he says. "We incurred much danger and hardship. Sometimes our sails would not flop, and in fifteen minutes we would have a gale, the seas running as high as a house. We were often wet for days together."

"After six weeks' travel by water and land, the Indians suddenly stopped and pointed to a distant black hill, very conspicuous from the trail.

"Iron mountain! Indian not go near! White men go!" said the Indians, who were prevented by a tribal superstition from venturing near the spot."

"EVERETT'S WONDERFUL DISCOVERY"

"The white men went, and found 'a mountain a hundred and fifty feet high, of solid ore, which looked as bright as a bar of iron just broken.' Mr. Everett had seven permits from the Secretary of War, each one giving him authority to lay claim to one square mile of ore land. He located his claims, and with pockets full of nuggets the little party made its perilous way home."

"THE MOST WONDERFUL RANGE OF ALL"

"And now comes the story of Mesaba—there are at least five ways of spelling the name—the last and greatest of the world's iron ranges. This range lies mainly in St. Louis County, Minnesota, north of Duluth, and farther west than the others. It extends over a huge tract at least twice as large as the State of Rhode Island.

"A few years before the Civil War a hardy woodsman named Lewis H. Meritt emigrated from Chautauqua County, New York, to Duluth, with his wife and family of four small boys. When the 'fool's gold' excitement began, he was one of those who followed the yellow will-o'-the-wisp through the northern wilderness. He found no gold; but he brought home a small paper parcel of red iron ore, and showed it to his sons, now in their teens. He taught them its value, and told them of a new unexplored range which in his opinion was a store-house of mineral wealth.

"Soon afterwards, the four brothers, Leonidas, Alfred, Andrus and Cassius, plunged into the forest and became expert and daring woodsmen. To and fro in the whole north region they ventured, until they became the Leatherstockings of Minnesota. Although their abilities fitted them for woodcraft and not for business, within twenty years their knowledge of timber lands made them fairly wealthy men. As soon as they had accumulated sufficient capital, they withdrew from the timber business, and in 1885 located their first iron mine."⁷⁸

⁷⁸Casson, Herbert N.: *The Romance of Steel*. Pages 49-50. A. S. Barnes & Co., New York, 1907.

⁷⁹Casson, Herbert N.: *Op. cit.*, pages 55-56.

"THE TREASURE PITS OF THE MESABA"

"A Mesaba iron mine is one of the world's wonders. The ore is not buried deep in the earth, but lies just underneath the surface in heaps and hills, as though a tribe of friendly gnomes had mined it. There are no sunken shafts, no sunless caverns and subways, no burrowing miners turning the tireless drills by the light of a flaring torch. A Mesaba mine is as open to the daylight as a brickyard. Some, with terraced sides, resemble vast amphitheatres; others, wide and shallow, are not unlike the switching-yard of a railroad; and a few suggest extinct volcanoes, which in their last gasp had exploded and torn open their red sides.

"In some places the ore is barely hidden by a foot of loose soil, but usually about fifty feet of earth covers the food for which four hundred furnaces are always hungry. One body of ore is two and a half miles long, half a mile wide, and from one hundred to four hundred feet thick. The thickest mass is four hundred and forty feet through, dwarfing the tallest of our skyscrapers. There are five of these immense treasure-pits whose total product is eighteen million dollars' worth of ore each year.

"The Mesaba ore is not hard and rocklike. Instead of blasting it loose, as is done in other iron ranges, the Mesaba 'miner' is merely a man who operates a steam-shovel. Eight workmen can handle one shovel, and under favorable conditions they can load more ore in one hour than five hundred delving miners can bring up in a day from the average rock mine. At every swing of the steam-shovel's powerful arm, five tons of ore drop into a big steel car. The arm swings twice a minute. . . ."

". . . Three little towns—Hibbing, Virginia, and Evelyn—have sprung up in hothouse haste. Hibbing, the largest, has a population of six thousand, and boasts a department store, three banks, two newspapers, electrical lights, and a hotel with six-course dinners and menus printed daily. More wonderful still, it has a theatre which can seat twelve hundred—a palace of pleasure which is 'a dream of sparkling lights and mellow tints charmingly blended,' to quote a proud editorial from the *Mesaba Ore*. A dozen mines, including the Burt and the Mahoning, are within walking distance of the depot, and the Stevenson is seven miles distant.

"There is no industry on the Mesaba except mining. The wooded wilderness encircles every town and mining village, and at night the howl of the wolf is heard as he slinks across the railroad track or starts at the light in a log-cabin window.

The topics following these sample units are as follows: XI. "What Industrial America Owes to its Natural Resources" (pages 174-184); XII. "The Corporation Developed as a Means of Accumulating Capital" (pages 185-217); XIII. "How the Industrial Revolution Forced the Laborers to Form Unions" (pages 218-229); XIV. "We Must Now Turn to the Study of Another Side of American Life" (pages 230-231).

CHAPTER XII

A COLLEGIATE SURVEY COURSE IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES¹

JOHN J. COSS

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Columbia College, as every other college in the land, was stirred by the war from its accustomed course and brought into closer contact with the affairs of men. A course in War Issues was given in which, among others, the Departments of History, Philosophy, Economics and Government participated. With the end of the war and of the S. A. T. C. the question was asked: "Are there no issues of peace which are equally important for the student to consider?" The departments named felt that there were such issues and in the spring of 1919 cooperated in the preparation of a Syllabus which was eventually called "An Introduction to Contemporary Civilization."

In the fall of 1919 a five-hour required course with this title was introduced as compulsory for all freshmen and a three-hour course in introductory philosophy and a three-hour course in modern history ceased to be requirements and were continued as electives only. The course is now being given for the fourth time, and each year has again demonstrated its utility.

¹*Introduction to Contemporary Civilization: a Syllabus.* Third edition, New York, Columbia University Press, 1921.

See also: C. S. Baldwin, "A focus for freshmen," *Columbia University Quarterly*, XXI (1919), 74; C. J. Keyser, "A word about the new wisdom and its obligations," *ibid.*, 118; J. J. Coss, "The new freshman course in Columbia College," *ibid.*, 247; J. J. Coss, "The Columbia College course on contemporary civilization," *The Historical Outlook*, XIII (1922), 204; Isidor Ginsburg, "An experiment in social education," *The Educational Times* (London), N.S. IV (1922), 238; Ernest H. Wilkins, "Initiatory courses for freshmen; Report by Committee G," *Bulletin Amer. Assoc. University Professors*, Vol. VIII, No. 6, October 1922.

The content of the course is as follows:

INTRODUCTION TO CONTEMPORARY CIVILIZATION

First Division. Civilization and Its Basis

Book I. The world of nature

1. Man as a product of nature
2. Man as a controller of nature

Book II. The world of human nature

The uniqueness of human behavior

1. Animal behavior compared with human
2. The types of human behavior and their social significance

Individual traits which are socially significant

1. The basic human desires
2. Man as social and individual
3. Wide variety in man's ability and interests
4. Language and communication among men
5. Racial and cultural continuity

The career of reason

1. Religion and the religious experience
2. Art and the aesthetic experience
3. Science and scientific method
4. Morals and moral valuation

Second Division. Survey of the Characteristics of the Present Age

Book III. Historical background of contemporary civilization, 1400-1870

Introduction: The fundamental conceptions of the present age

1. The intellectual outlook of the Renaissance—the birth of modern science, and the rise of national cultural traditions in Western Europe
2. The commercial revolution
3. The agricultural revolution
4. The industrial revolution
5. The development of thought in the 18th century—humanitarianism, rationalism, and romanticism
6. The American revolution
7. The French revolution
8. Napoleon Bonaparte's work in preserving and spreading certain ideas and achievements of the French revolution

9. Unsuccessful attempt of Metternich and the conservatives to restore and preserve the old regime, 1815-1848
10. The revolutionary movements of 1848-1850
11. European struggles for nationalism and democracy, 1850-1871
12. Nationalism, democracy, and the industrial revolution in the United States from Washington to Grant

Book IV. The recent history of the great nations, 1871 to the present

Introduction: Important factors in the development of civilized nations since 1871

1. The United Kingdom and the British Empire since 1867
2. France since 1870
3. Italy since 1871
4. Germany since 1871
5. Austria-Hungary, 1867-1918
6. Russia since 1855
7. The Near East
8. The Far East
9. Middle and western Asia
10. Africa
11. Australia and the islands of the South Pacific
12. American development since 1871
13. The diplomatic background of the world war
14. The world war, 1914-1918
15. The continued struggle for markets and power

Third Division. The Insistent Problems of To-day

Book V. The problems of imperialism and the "backward peoples"

1. The old colonial movement and the new imperialism
2. "Backward peoples" and the dogma of race superiority
3. The problems of imperialism

Book VI. Problems of nationalism and internationalism

1. National self-determination versus historic, ethnic, strategic, geographic, and economic claims
2. The problem of war and peace
3. Individualism, nationalism, cosmopolitanism

Book VII. The problems of conservation

1. Definition
2. Importance
3. Conservation of natural resources
4. Conservation of plant and animal life
5. Conservation of man

Book VIII. Industrial problems

1. A survey of the prominent features of the modern industrial system
2. The organization of production: problems arising from the conflicting interests of certain of the agents of production
3. The organization of production: competition versus combination and monopoly
4. Problems connected with the distribution of the annual social income
5. The problem of control in industry

Book IX. Problems of political control

1. Conflicting estimates of political democracy
2. The problem of popular control
3. The problem of centralization versus decentralization
4. The problem of securing efficient administration
5. The problem of determining the sphere of governmental activity
6. The problem of homogeneity

Book X. Educational problems

1. The nature and aims of education
2. The agents of education in contemporary civilization
3. Current educational problems

Appendix**Part I. The world of nature****Part II. Historical map studies**

1. The commercial revolution
2. The industrial revolution
3. Europe in 1815
4. National unification in Europe, 1850-1914
5. European expansion
6. Europe in the world war

Part III. Studies on the insistent problems of today

1. Race
2. The conservation of natural resources
3. The conservation of man
4. Immigration in the United States
5. The distribution of wealth among various classes of society
6. The problem of illiteracy
7. The geographical distribution of institutionalized religion

The aim of the course is to increase the ability of college men to consider social questions intelligently and to see how intimately connected in their solution is the information furnished by psychology, history, ethics, economics, and government. It is an endeavor to bring caution and the consideration of all available data into decisions as to the utility and desirability of proposed solutions to the insistent problems of to-day. It is propaganda for nothing save the application of reflection to the perplexing problems which must be solved if the world in which we live is to be increasingly a more satisfactory field for human endeavor. Dewey's definition of reflection can scarcely be improved: "Active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds which support it, and the further conclusions to which it tends constitutes reflective thought."²

The course is intended to bring to students entering college a sense of the serious character of a responsible and thoughtful life. In a sense it is an introduction to the more mature attitude which should and usually does characterize the college as contrasted with the high school.

The contributions from many fields which are a necessary part of the course serve as a kind of test in interest and an indication of those lines of future study which the student will pursue. The full range of the social sciences opens out from the course, and many students come to realize for the first time both the interrelation of these sciences and their possibilities for further study.

The process of preparing the course, and its administration may suggest ideas which are likely to prove useful in similar enter-

²John Dewey, *How We Think*, p. 6.

prises. The syllabus is a cooperative product. It is no one instructor's opinion, but the best thought and judgment of a group with varied training and different major interests. It is better balanced and in fairer proportion for this joint effort. Required courses in which large numbers of students receive instruction year after year call for the most scrupulous care in the preparation and presentation of material. The cooperation was possible because all those participating, whether from the Departments of Economics, Government, Philosophy, or History, felt this fact keenly and subordinated special or vested interests in an effort to produce the sort of course which the aim indicated.

Not more than thirty-five nor fewer than twenty students form a section. One instructor, chosen from the cooperating departments, carries a section through the entire course. Material not in his special field he works up for the course. This effort requires a keen realization of the value of the course, but it has proved possible and profitable; profitable for the student because of the unity which it brings to class work, and profitable to the instructor because of the broadened outlook and increased appreciation of the bearing of fields related to his own speciality.

The twenty instructors meet weekly for luncheon and conference. These gatherings have become one of the most pleasant incidents in university association. Interdepartmental friendships and exchange of ideas are present as never before.

No instructor teaches more than one section. In each department provision is made that the teaching program of instructors in the course include one highly specialized course in the instructor's field of major interest. Such union of general and special teaching is productive of both broad and original scholarship.

Each class elects from its number a representative. The group of representatives meets for discussion of the work of the course and the members present their findings at a dinner given to them by the instructors. In the spring session a ball game and dinner in the open vary the program. The results of this cooperation have been most gratifying.

The methods of instruction are discussion, questioning, and informal lectures. Short quizzes are given at least once a week. For

the final and for the monthly examinations the new form of multiple-question content examination of the psychological type are given. The final examination has two parts: a two-hour examination of true-false, completion, and recognition type; a one-hour examination of the essay type on two questions requiring organizing and coordinating ability exercised on major ideas in the course. The correlation of this final examination with the college entrance psychological test of three and a quarter hours is .78, the highest correlation of any subject save mathematics and physics.

Difficulties the course has: It requires excellent teachers with a broad interest in real education. It presupposes the surrender of special vested departmental interests. It needs revision frequently. It necessitates the revamping of introductory courses in each department, since some of the material previously given in such courses is now given in the survey course. It requires the purchase of one copy of each required text for each twelve students.

Students almost uniformly consider the course the most interesting and valuable instruction of their freshmen year. Students who took the course in 1919 tell us of the profound effect it has had on their whole college course.

As an indication of the significance of this interdepartmental course I quote the following from the report of President Butler for 1921-22: "A most unhappy result of the elective system introduced a generation ago, and one that was not foreseen, was the destruction of that common body of knowledge which held educated men together in understanding and in sympathy. For more than a thousand years educated men had pursued pretty much the same studies, had read pretty much the same books, and had gained a common stock of information concerning man and nature. The elective system first weakened and then destroyed that common body of knowledge, and as a result brought in its train intellectual, moral, social, and political consequences that are nothing less than grievous. The narrowing of one's field of information to the subject in which he early displays the greatest interest, means cutting him off from intellectual contact and sympathy with all but his own fellow specialists. Intellectual, moral, and social unity is broken up, and classes, cliques, and groups become first influential

and then dominant. Civilization cannot be so maintained, much less advanced. If the educated men and women who are the natural leaders of modern society have little or nothing in common, the doom of such leadership is sealed.

"It was manifestly impossible and undesirable, for many reasons, to reinstate the old prescribed program of college studies. The world had outgrown it; but the world had not outgrown, and will never outgrow, the principles upon which that prescribed course of study was based. In seeking for a substitute, and with the direct aim of providing a common body of knowledge and a field of common interest for the undergraduates in Columbia College, the Faculty wrought out and introduced the course of instruction known as 'Introduction to Contemporary Civilization,' attendance upon which is prescribed for freshmen five times weekly. This course, which claims the energies of some twenty of the most competent and zealous of the College teachers, has been from the outset a pronounced success, and is now fortunately being imitated elsewhere. By its survey of the origins and present character of the fundamental problems which confront the world of to-day, it offers a body of instruction both interesting in itself and highly practical, whether as a foundation for more advanced knowledge or as a means of uniting those who follow the course by a common bond of much strength, no matter how diverse may be their later and more special studies. The making and the introduction of this course have been a distinct achievement and a contribution, both original and rich, to the solution of the American college problem."

SECTION III. HOW THE NEW CURRICULA ARE BEING CONSTRUCTED

CHAPTER XIII

BASIC FACTS NEEDED IN HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY; A STATISTICAL INVESTIGATION

CARLETON W. WASHBURNE,
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As a foundation for all more advanced courses in the social studies we usually require some knowledge of the basic facts of history and geography. This chapter, like Chapter V, deals with a course designed to meet this demand. There are, in theory at least, those who would teach even these facts in a series of contemporary problems, explained by past events; but there is little justification for this extreme view, either from the standpoint of interest or of use. A fact course may be made fully as interesting as a problem course. For young children it may, perhaps, be made more interesting. From the standpoint of use, we make probably much more application of fact knowledge than of social problem solving in actual life. Therefore, both for those who would make each day of a child's education worth while in itself, and for those who would prepare children for future needs, a knowledge of the outstanding facts in history and geography is desirable.

But what are those outstanding facts? How can they be determined? What is their relative importance? How can they be woven into a satisfactory curriculum? These are the questions which the Winnetka Social Science Seminar has attempted to answer.

The seminar, now in its third year of work, has consisted of from twelve to fifteen well trained and experienced teachers.¹ It

¹The members of the seminar are, or have been, the following: 1920-'21: Eleanor Stille, Sarah Greenebaum, Ruth Ostlund. 1920-'21-'22: Emma Williams, Muriel Vernon, J. Anthony Humphreys. 1921-'22: Wilda Bayes, Edel Liebe, Ruth Harshaw. 1920-'21, 1922-'23: Edna Harry Cleveland. 1922-'23: Muriel MacKay, Claire Lippman, Jeannette Baer, Marion Gram, Eva Cox, Martha Ratliff, Georgia Pearson, Willard Beatty. 1921-'22-'23: Katherine Michael, Soren Ostergaard. 1920-'21-'22-'23: LaReina Bubbett, Marion Carswell, Louise Mohr, Julia Stipe Ostergaard, Carleton W. Washburne.

meets one evening a week for discussion and research. From December 1, 1921, to December 1, 1922, it had financial help from the Commonwealth Fund in New York, and thereafter from the Winnetka Board of Education. This help has enabled it to employ a full time research worker and a clerk. The research worker during the first six months was Dr. Charles S. Pendleton, now at Peabody College. Since that time it has been Louise M. Mohr.

In order to determine the outstanding facts of history and geography, we had first to decide why these facts were to be taught —what use they were to have in life. We knew that a person who was not aware that Paris was a city in France, rather than a river in South America, for example, or one who thought that Caesar, Confucious, and Columbus might all have been personal friends, was obviously an ignorant person. Such a person could not read nor converse intelligently with people who were likely to refer to Paris or Caesar, with an assumption that their hearers or readers knew something about them. We therefore decided that one very important function of history and geography teaching was to make children familiar with those persons, places, dates, and events which are commonly known to intelligent people.

At this point the question arose as to whether or not we should try to give the children *more* knowledge than was commonly possessed. It seemed to us that eventually this should be done, but that the determination of this additional knowledge would be a different problem from the determination of common knowledge. Additional information would not have as its main function the making of intelligent readers. Its function might be to help secure certain attitudes or to solve certain problems. Therefore it would be determined by the attitudes one wished to inculcate or the problems one wished to solve.

Our purpose was neither of these. We wanted first of all to find out what facts children must know in order to be reasonably intelligent concerning those persons and places and events to which frequent allusions are made. Our investigation, therefore, resolved itself into a study of allusions.

Allusions to historical and geographical facts are made in conversation, books, and periodicals. Since we had no army of stenog-

raphers, we could not make a statistical study of allusions in conversation. We might have used books. But books are usually either purely fiction or else devoted entirely to some one general subject. In order to make an adequate study of books we should have had to examine a prohibitively large number of them. We should have had great difficulty in getting even a fair sampling of them.

Periodicals, however, offered us a fertile field of miscellaneous articles of all kinds, with a liberal sprinkling of fiction. Furthermore, they form a very considerable portion of the reading of most Americans. Since many writers of books also write for periodicals, the allusions in one are probably those of the other. In all likelihood, too, our conversation tallies fairly well with our reading in this respect. The seminar therefore decided to investigate the allusions in periodicals. It hoped, thereby, to secure information as to the facts that are common knowledge and that are met in conversation and general reading. It knew, definitely, that the facts frequently alluded to in periodicals must be taught if our children are to read intelligently.

In selecting the periodicals the seminar was guided by these considerations:—type of subject matter, generality of distribution, and period of time covered. With these considerations in mind four "literary" periodicals were selected: *Atlantic*, *Bookman*, *Century*, *Scribner's*; five popular fiction periodicals: *American*, *Cosmopolitan*, *Saturday Evening Post*, *Ladies' Home Journal*, *Good Housekeeping*; five news periodicals: *World's Work*, *Literary Digest*, *Outlook*, *New Republic*, *Nation*; and four newspapers: *New York Times*, *Chicago Tribune*, *Chicago Herald-Examiner*, *Christian Science Monitor*. We chose about fifteen issues of each of these periodicals, three every third year, in such a way that one periodical or another covered almost every month of every year from 1905 to May, 1922. In this way we avoided seasonal weighting of items, and secured information over a wide enough range of years to avoid the danger of over emphasis of purely transitory material.

Having thus determined the scope of our investigation, the actual reading was begun. We went through each issue of each

periodical, from beginning to end (excluding advertisements), and recorded every allusion to a person, place, date, or event, on a slip like the following:

Person-Place-Date or Event	No. Articles	No. Times
Periodical		
Date of same.....		
Information Allusion Special Article		

We did not note those allusions which were unknown to all members of the seminar. During the first part of our study we also omitted from our record, allusions to certain facts that seemed so obviously well known as to make a check unnecessary. This list included such names as America, Atlantic Ocean, and George Washington. Later, however, we decided not to exclude any known facts, so that during the latter part of our study no allusions were omitted on the ground of being too well known. Those that had been omitted at first were multiplied by an index number that brought them to approximately their proper ranks in the great bulk of allusions which were listed from the beginning. The index number was computed from the detailed statistics of a hundred items. A full description of this computation will be found in a recent issue of the *Journal of Educational Research*.

Altogther we noted 81,434 allusions. The slips on which they were recorded would fill several bushel baskets. We arranged these slips alphabetically, so that all that bore on one item would come together. We then transcribed them on large sheets, with years indicated by horizontal rows, periodicals by vertical columns. We thus recorded all allusions to any one item on one sheet. Such a summary sheet is reproduced herewith.

The vertical marks on the summary sheet represent allusions; the horizontal marks, the number of articles in which the allusions occur.

We further summarized each sheet by noting four things at the top: (1) the number of "periodical-years." This was found by counting the squares in which allusions were noted. This made periodicals and years of equal value. Virtually, it weighted each

Caesar, Julius

Figure 1.

41-18-58-78 -6-

year by the number of periodicals containing allusions to the item in question during that year. The "periodical-years" showed general spread of allusions over both time and periodicals, and consequently showed the likelihood of meeting them. The maximum possible was 261 periodical years. (2) The *range* of years. This was found by noting the lapse of time from the first year in which an allusion was found, to the last. The maximum possible in our study was 18. (3) The number of *articles* containing allusions to the item in question. (4) The gross number of *allusions*.

At first it might seem that gross number of allusions would be a reasonable basis for ranking our items according to importance. A study of the records showed that this was not the case. One article might have a surprisingly large number of allusions to an item that was almost never mentioned again in other articles. Or, during a certain space of time, a number of periodicals might give much space to a current event that soon died out—such as the battle of Lemberg, or the candidacy of Cox. All things considered, the periodical-year was found to be the most reliable figure for ranking purposes. It gave an almost perfect index as to the probability of meeting allusions to the item. We therefore ranked our items according to their periodical-years.

When more than one item had the same number of periodical-years, we ranked them by their spread of years—the lapse of time between first and last allusions. If some were still tied, we further ranked them by number of articles containing the allusions; and finally, if some were equal even after this, we used gross number of allusions to show which was most important. We thereby obtained a strictly objective ranking of all our items.

On our final list, we included only those names, dates, and events which occurred in more than 6 periodical-years. These items have a gross frequency of 61,616 recorded allusions. When we extend our original exclusions of very common items by the use of the index number, the total gross allusions to items with six or more periodical-years becomes 96,303. The list of these items is reproduced herewith.²

²Differences between these totals and others previously published are due to errors found in careful checking.

This list gives the relative probability of meeting allusions to the persons, places, and events named. It shows, therefore, the relative importance of these items from the standpoint of enabling children to read intelligently. It forms, furthermore, an objective basis for a fact course in history and geography.

The first 50 items only are recorded in full, with number of periodical-years first. Then follow, in order, the number of years elapsing between first and last allusion to the item (second column), the number of articles in which such allusions occur (third column), and the gross number of allusions (fourth column). The remainder of the list is also arranged in exact order, but in it only the number of periodical-years is printed.

America (meaning U. S.)	103	18	1211	5903
England	103	18	1155	3315
France	100	18	1390	3848
New York (city)	100	18	911	2386
China	98	18	353	750
London	95	18	629	1303
Germany	92	18	674	3015
Boston	92	18	297	564
New York (state)	86	18	594	1090
Paris	86	18	516	1494
Italy	86	18	428	1140
Japan	86	18	267	902
Great Britain	83	18	400	1539
Europe	81	18	837	1995
United States	81	18	659	1725
Rome	81	18	202	604
California	81	18	193	269
Russia	78	18	362	1730
Ireland	78	18	288	674
Spain	78	18	279	649
Greece	78	18	264	761
Washington, D. C.	75	18	457	899
Chicago	75	18	350	618
Indians (American)	75	18	240	814
Africa (incl. North & South Africa, etc.)	75	18	216	441
Roosevelt, Theo.	74	18	257	617
Congress	72	18	255	632
Scotch, Scotland	72	18	216	337
Canada	72	18	216	199
Philadelphia	72	18	213	354
Lincoln, Abraham	72	18	142	160
Harvard	70	18	137	236
Switzerland	69	18	124	176
Atlantic	66	18	172	193
Holland	66	18	169	460

Wilson, Woodrow	65	18	380	789
India	63	18	151	255
Egypt	63	18	130	286
Hudson River.....	63	18	124	121
Jew; Jewish	63	18	109	460
Australia	63	18	103	174
New England	63	17	178	247
Taft, Pres.	62	15	170	411
Poland	61	18	175	281
Berlin	61	18	133	219
San Francisco	61	18	121	165
Washington, George	61	18	109	216
Civil War	61	16	148	162
Austria (incl. Austria-Hungary)....	59	18	193	429
Maine	59	18	80	86

56	Pennsylvania		Liverpool	Bulgaria
	Virginia		Shaw, George	Root, Elihu
	Hungary		Bernard	Flanders
	Pittsburgh		Mississippi River	33 Mexico
	New Jersey	41	Princeton Univ.	Balkan states
	Kipling, Rudyard		Caesar, Julius	Denver, Colo.
54	Christians (incl. Christianity)	40	Servia	Georgia
53	Vienna		Kansas City, Mo.	Orient; Oriental
53	St. Louis		Hughes, Charles	Jefferson, Thomas
	Turkey		Evans	Twain, Mark
	Brooklyn	39	Fifth Ave.	Moscow
	Oxford		Republican Party	Norway
	Sweden		Democrat; Demo- cratic Party	32 Gladstone, Wm. E.
	President; Presi- dency (U. S.)		Roumania	Louisville, Ky.
	Catholic (Inc. Roman Church)		Buffalo, N. Y.	Milton, John
	Indiana		North Carolina	Asquith, Herbert
50	Florida		Maryland	Monroe Doctrine
	Christ (Inc. Jesus)		Emerson Ralph	31 South, The (U. S.)
	Napoleon I		Waldo	Florence
	Pacific		Victoria, Queen	Manhattan
	Persia	38	Arizona	Antwerp
	Yale Univ.		Michigan (state)	Tolstoy
	Massachusetts		Browning, Robert	Kitchener
49	South America	37	Carnegie, Andrew	Shanghai
	Belgium		Grant, U. S.	Bismark
	Baltimore, Maryland	36	New Haven	30 Portugal
47	America		Asia	Nile River
	Bryan, W. J.		Dickens, Charles	Siberia
	Shakespeare		Denmark	French Revolution
	Connecticut		Albany	Syria
	Anglo-Saxon		Los Angeles	Presbyterian
	Prussia		Palestine (incl. Holy Land)	Alps
	Illinois		Mediterranean	Louisiana
	Missouri		Morgan, John	Mohammedan
	Venice		Pierpont	Lowell, James R.
	Texas		Elizabeth, Queen of	Colorado (state)
	Ohio		England	Morocco
	Parliament		South Carolina	Hague, The
46	Columbia Univ.		Oregon	Wordsworth, W.
	Lloyd-George, David		Wisconsin	Mississippi (state)
	Wall Street		New Orleans	Rhine River
45	White House		Athens	Minneapolis
44	Kentucky		Minnesota	Philipines
	Scandinavia		Rocky Mountains	Cuba
	Methodist Church		Broadway, N. Y.	29 Amsterdam
	Puritans	35	Cleveland, Grover	Beethoven
	Kansas		Milwaukee	Supreme Court
43	Wilhelm II, Kaiser		Carlyle, Thomas	(U. S.)
42	Petrograd (incl. St. Petersburg)	34	Alsace-Lorraine	Slavs
	Detroit		Rockefeller, J. D.	Copenhagen
	Arabia		McKinley, William	28 Rochester, N. Y.
				Hugo, Victor
				Stevenson, R. L.
				West, The (U. S.)

Wagner, Richard	24	Long Island	Missouri River
Teutons		Newport, R. I.	Madrid
Latin		Arnold, Matthew	Asia Minor
New Zealand		Goethe, Wolfgang	Shelley
Red Cross		Dante	Balfour
Thackeray, W. M.		Bavaria	Trenton
Lodge, H. C.		Socialism	Byron
Armenia		Charleston, S. Car.	Declaration of In-
Boer		Edinburgh	dependence
Babylon		Hamburg	Cincinnati
Franklin, B.		Alabama	Chicago, University
Toronto		Whistler, James	of
27 Cleveland, O.		McNeil	Bohemia
Naples		Baltic	Eliot, Charles W.
Brazil		Chopin	Seattle
Latin		Leipzig	La Fayette
New Mexico		Atlanta, Ga.	Marne
Vermont		Gettysburg	Montenegro
Edward VII		Cologne	Quebec
Tennyson		North America	Panama Canal
Louis XIV		Constantinople	Manila
Finland		"Allies", The	Danube
Cambridge, Mass.		Daniels, J.	World War
Indianapolis	23	Versailles	Bolsheviki
Alaska		Havana	Plato
Brussels		Jerusalem	Disraeli
Peru		Whitman, W.	Joan of Arc
Thames River		Middle Ages	Franco-Prussian War
Tokio		Waterloo	La Follette, R. M.
Van Dyke, Henry		Louis XV	Lee, Robert E.
Montreal		Revolution (U. S.)	Strauss, Richard
Iowa		Westminster	Charles II (England)
Tennessee		Edison, T.	Duluth
Wyoming		Cornell	Grey, Sir Edward
Rhode Island		Macterlinck	Des Moines, I.
26 Omaha		Manchuria	Providence, R. I.
Richmond, Va.		Potomac River	Bagdad
Hindu		Dresden	20 Homer
Wales		Venezuela	Gothic (architect-
James, Henry (nov-		Wells, H. G.	ure)
elist)		Manchester, England	Hawaii
Gibraltar		Reichstag	British Columbia
Springfield, Ill.		McAdoo, W. G.	Warsaw
Nicholas II		Caucasus	Portland, Ore.
25 Scott, Sir Walter	22	East, The (U. S.)	Galicia
Darwin, Charles		North, The (U. S.)	Quaker
Longfellow, Henry		Renaissance	Meredith, G.
Wadsworth		Glasgow	Spanish-American
Milan		Hawthorne, N.	War
Munich		Algeria	West Indies
Cambridge, England		Panama	Albania
Howells, William		Utah	Memphis, Tenn.
Dean		West Point	Buenos Aires
Macedonia		Nevada	Picadilly

Spencer, H.	Budapest	Roberts, Lord
Tariff	Carranza	English Channel
Hartford, Conn.	Baker, Newton D.	Columbus, Christopher
Senate, U. S.	Foch	Poincare, Raymond
George V (England)	Hindenberg	Nashville, Tenn.
Pershing	Cairo, Egypt	Poe, Edgar Allan
19 Baptist	Atlantic City	Bryce, James
"Middle West"	Standard Oil Company	Plymouth, Mass.
(U. S.)	Sherman Anti-Trust	Hamilton, Alexander
Buskin, J.	Law	Geneva, Switzerland
Gompers, Samuel	Vancouver	Newark, N. J.
Aristotle	Dublin	Korea
Arctic	Columbus, Ohio	Rousseau, Jean
Lamb, Charles	Russo-Japanese War	Jacques
Porto Rico	Y. M. C. A.	Mozart
St. Paul, Minn.	Meuse	Ottawa, Canada
Episcopal	Brahms, Johannes	Jamaica
House of Commons	Ward, Mrs. H.	Annapolis
Washington (state)	Macaulay, T. B.	Salt Lake City, Utah
Clemenceau	Montana	Kaiser (not specific)
Tammany	Socrates	Bengal
Voltaire	Buddha	Mendelssohn
Rembrandt	Oklahoma	Central Park
Winnipeg	Johnson, Hiram	Cromwell, Oliver
Syracuse, N. Y.	Interstate Commerce	Rotterdam
Balsac	Commission	Bronx
Dewey, George	Ibsen	Gallic
New Hampshire	Hohenzollern	Jackson, Andrew
West Virginia	Louvain	Adirondacks
Niagara	Sparta	Vladivostok
Addams, Jane	George III	American Federation
Verdun	Arkansas	of Labor
Argentina	Hudson Bay	Liszt
Czechs	Peoria	Havre
Ypres	Toledo, Ohio	Rio Grande
Honolulu	Constitution of U. S.	Victorian Age
Hoover	Cape Town	Chaucer
League of Nations	Suez	Tunis
18 House of Representatives	Calais	Churchill, Winston
Mesopotamia	Pekin	(English)
Irving, Washington	Calcutta	I. W. W.
Vergil	"Eliot, George",	15 West (meaning Occident)
Keats	Bach	D'Annunzio
Congo (region, river, etc.)	Mexico City	Confederacy
David (Bible)	Salonika	Fourth of July
Tibet	Nebraska	Holmes, Oliver
Stockholm	Dardanelles	Wendell
Cannon, Joseph G.	Adriatic Sea	Hardy, Thomas
Zola	Villa, Francisco	Michael Angelo
Harriman, Edward H.	Black Sea	Luxemburg
16 Schumann, Robert	Lithuania	Belfast, Ireland
San Diego, Cal.	Johnson, Samuel	Luther, Martin
	Solomon (King)	

Yokohama	Titian	Savannah
Cossacks	Rubens, Peter Paul	Agriculture, U. S.
Marseilles	Pompeii	Dept. of
Nietzsche	France, Anatole	Marconi
John Hopkins University	District of Columbia	Saxons (meaning English)
Cape Cod	Ukraine	Yellowstone National Park
Tschaikowsky	San Antonio	Omar Khayyam
Birmingham, Ala.	Davis, Richard	Union (U. S., or North, in Civil War)
Vassar College	Harding	Swinburne, Algernon Charles
Webster, Daniel	Hapsburg, House of	Louvre, The
Wood, Leonard	Palm Beach, Fla.	Davis, Jefferson
Grand Rapids, Mich.	Nova Scotia	Ottoman (empire, etc.)
Madison, Wis.	Gibbon, Edward	Bombay, India
Metropolitan Opera	Huxley, Thomas	Belasco, David
Duma (Russian)	Frankfort, Germany	"Near East"
Zurich, Switzerland	Vatican	Wellesley College
East Indies	Damascus	Aegean (sea, islands, etc.)
South Seas	Krupp	Harrisburgh, Pa.
Hearst, William Randolph	Warwick (county, castle)	Garfield, James A.
Illinois, University of	Christiania (Norway)	Armour (incl.
Euphrates	Andes	Armour & Co., J. Ogden Armour)
Bukharest	Chile	Bernhardt, Sarah
Paul (Apostle)	James, William	Bacon, Francis
Clark, Champ	Caribbean Sea	Hong Kong
Franz Joseph (Emperor)	Wisconsin, University of	Durer, Albrecht
Cicero	Congregational	War Department, U. S.
Lusitania	Rhims	Vinci, Leonardo da
Ontario (Province)	Magyar	Notre Dame Univ.
Galsworthy, John	Ulster	"O. Henry" (Sidney Porter)
Constantine	Galveston, Texas	Trieste
Bennett, Arnold	Bonar-Law, Andrew	Metropolitan Museum
Huerta	North Dakota	Dartmouth College
Lenine	Soviet	Mohammed
Yankeec	Trotsky, Leon	Bolivia
Continent (Europe)	Liberty Loans	Colts; Celtic
Barrie, James	Joffre	Molière
Wellington, Duke of	Velasquez	Henry VIII (England)
Newfoundland	Capitol (at Washington, D. C.)	Labor, U. S. Dept. of
Curzon, Lord	York, England (county; city)	Greenwich Village (N. Y. city)
Raleigh, Walter	Marx, Karl	California, University of
Cleopatra	Southampton	
Tyrol	Schiller	
Greeley, Horace	Dayton, Ohio	
Pilgrims (American)	Anne, Queen (England)	
Saratoga, New York	Moslems; Moslem	
Alexander the Great	Frederick the Great	
Idaho	Portland, Maine	
Harrison, Benjamin	"Far East" (Eastern Asia)	
Vesuvius		
Genoa		

Bordeaux		Charlemagne;	Crusades
Bosnia		Charles the Great	El Paso, Texas
Berne		Waldorf-Astoria	Verdi
Lansing, Robert		Concord, Mass.	Normans
Federal Reserve (bank; Board; Law)		(incl. battle) Appomatox, Va.	St. Helena
Ford, Henry		Carthage	Central America
Somme		Latin America	Hay, John
12 "The East" (the Orient)		Debussy, Claude	Utica, N. Y.
Thoreau		Chesterton, Gilbert K.	Scranton, Pa.
Salisbury, Lord		Churchill, Winston	Fall River, Mass.
Gaul; Gauls		(Amer.)	Sicily
Eton (school)		Houston, Texas	Kent, England
Windsor (England)		Trafalgar	Cortez
Highlands; High- landers		Händel	Sioux City, Iowa
Doyle, Arthur Conan		Düsseldorf	Santa Domingo
Tarkington, Booth		Diaz, P.	Riviera
Burke, Edmund		Melbourne	Philistines
Phillips, Wendell		Sydney, Australia	Halifax
Huguenots		Chambers, Robert W.	Strassburg
Moors		Entente, The	St. Joseph, Mo.
Chase, Salmon P.		Michigan, Univer- sity of	Bridgeport, Conn.
Birmingham, England		Horace	Pasadena, California
Pennsylvania, Uni- versity of		Vera Cruz	Oyster Bay
Landis, Judge		Shantung	Hampton Roads, Va.
Kenesaw Mt.		Leland Stanford Jr. University	Burns, Robert
Huns (chiefly mean- ing Germans)	11	Tripoli	Maupassant, Guy de
Mecca		Progressive Party	Charles I (England)
Transvaal		Jugo-Slavs; Jugo- Slavia	Schwab, Charles M.
Coleridge, Samuel Taylor		Kerensky	Mary (Present Queen of England)
Rio de Janeiro		Protestant	Hague Peace Con- ferences
Moses (Bible)		Howe, Julia Ward	Beecher, Henry Ward
Byzantium		Delaware	Labrador
Millet, Jean Francois		London, Jack	Prague
Sudan		Christmas	British Isles
Vanderlip, Frank A.		Pope, Alexander	Topeka
Norfolk, Va.		Boulogne	Medici, The (in general)
Botticelli		Newton, Isaac	Liberal Party (England)
Mobile, Ala.		James I (England)	East Side (New York City)
Chattanooga		Ohio River	Amazon River
Bremen, Germany		Devonshire	Indian Ocean
Borah, Senator		Pitt, William	Payne-Aldrich Tariff
Gary, Ind.		Hoboken	North sea
Evanston, Ill.		Colonial period (American)	Kiel
Hill, James J.		Austen, Jane	Liberty, Statue of
Worcester, Mass.		South Dakota	Monte Carlo
		Jersey City	Jericho
		Marathon (race)	Heidelberg
		Penn, William	Northcliffe, Lord
		Alexandria, Egypt	

Argonne	Boxer (rebellion)	Masefield, John
Underwood, Oscar	Iceland	Bristol, England
Gallipoli	Singapore	Brest, France
Albert, King of Belgium	McCormick, Cyrus H.	Carpathia; Car- pathians
Count von Bernstorff	Romanoff Family	Harding, Warren G.
Lutheran Church	Eddy, Mary Baker	Chautauqua
10 "Old World"	State, U. S. Dept. of Chihuahua	Britain (ancient & modern)
Sing Sing	Triple Alliance	Springfield, Mass.
Coney Island	Manitoba	War of 1812
Pharaoh	Pennsylvania	Smoot, Reed
Sorbonne (Univ.)	Railroad	Hewlett, Maurice
Kalamazoo	Mongolia; Mongols	Treasury, U. S.
Mirabeau	Puget Sound	Pacific coast, U. S.
Afghan	Wharton, Edith	Goldsmith, Oliver
Wilde, Oscar	Spokane	Champs Elysees
Ade, George	Mormons, Latter Day Saints	Vicksburg, Miss.
Sherman, Wm. T.	Lancashire	Uncle Sam, U. S.
Marie Antoinette	Wesley, John	Buckingham Palace
Eskimo	Fiume	Jordan River
Sahara	Bethmann-Holweg, von	Brittany
Rothschild (family; banking house)	Gary, Judge	Reynolds, Sir Joshua
Plutarch	Elbert H.	Manchus
Harte, Bret	Dumas, Alexander	Henry IV (France)
Aberdeen, Scotland	Lane, Franklin K.	Tudor
Joliet, Ill.	Ritz-Carlton Hotel (London)	Conrad, Joseph
Turner, J. M. W.	Malay; Malaysia	Flaubert
Troy (ancient)	Bulow, Prince von	St. Augustine, Fla.
Madison, James	Salem, Mass.	Himalayas
Navy, U. S. Dept. of the	Napoleon III	Dallas
Potsdam	New York Stock Ex- change	Johnson, Andrew (President)
Saxony	Ecuador	Riga
Sierra Nevada Mts.	Poughkeepsie	Machiavelli
Aurelius, Marcus	Chelsea, London	Mary, Queen of Scots
St. Paul's Cathedral (London)	Persian Gulf	Assyria; Assyrians
Chamberlain, Austin	Hanna, Mark	Douglas, Stephen A.
Chesapeake Bay	Pinchot, Gifford	Lexington (battle, place)
Kant, Emanuel	Sunday, Billy	Cairo, Ill.
Federal (U. S. gov- ernment)	Ithaca, N. Y.	Wales, Prince of
Swift (incl. Swift & Co., Louis F. Swift)	Lisbon	Dryden, John
Haiti	Reed, Senator James A.	Bristish Museum
Lexington, Ky.	Sothorn, E. H.	Calvin, John
Madison Square Gardens	Dalmatia	Cape Colony
Nicaragua	Sumner, Charles	Daudet, Alphonse
Sargent, John S.	Adams, John	Cabinet (U. S. President's)
Salvation Army	Lorraine	Anti-Saloon League
Guatemala	Riverside Drive, N. Y.	Knox, P. C.
	Tumulty, Joseph P.	Delaware River
		Thirty Years' War
		Bunker Hill

Burroughs, John	Bermuda	Alexandria (Queen of England)
Dover, England	Aldrich, Senator	Kingsley, Charles
Stratford on Avon	Nelson W.	Zulu
Whittier, John	Lawrence, Mass.	Samoa
Greenleaf	French, Sir John	Gloucester, Mass.
Sacramento, Calif.	White, Stewart	Capri
Napoleonic Wars	Edward	Bunyan, John
Astor, John Jacob	Balkan War	"Reds"
Schubert, Franz	Aisne	Northwest, U. S.
Santiago, Chili	Burleson, Albert S.	Tangiers
Paderewski	Sinn Fein	Nobel Prizes
Staten Island	Y. W. C. A.	George, Henry
Magna Charta	Liège	Alberta, Canada
Stowe, Harriet	Soissons	Burma
Beecher	Bosphorus	Odessa
Bowery (street, N. Y.)	Thompson, William	Noah
Luxembourg, Paris (Palace, garden)	Hale	Lowden, Frank O.
Saskatchewan	American Expedi-	Bethlehem (of
Barrymore, Ethel	tionary Forces	Judea)
Kenosha, Wis.	Peace Conference	Union Pacific Rail-
Aurora, Ill.	Central Powers	road
Haig, Douglas	(World War)	Juarez (Mex. City)
(General; Field	8 Lille	Marlowe, Julia
Marshal)	Mary (Virgin)	Victor Emmanuel III
Burnett, Mrs.	Abraham	Aldrich, Thomas
Frances Hodgson	Hudson, Henry	Bailey
Ellis Island	Canterbury, Arch-	Nelson, Horatio
Cape of Good Hope	bishop of	Beach, Rex
Silesia	Pennell, Joseph	Tacoma, Wash.
William the Con-	Francis I (King of	Archangel, Russia
queror	France)	Sophocles
Tuileries (palace, gardens)	Gaelic	San Juan (hill, battle, etc.)
Faversham, William	Raphael	Richelieu
Kief, Russia	Washington Square	Whigs (American Party)
Northwestern Uni-	(N. Y. city)	Nazareth
versity	New York Times	Sioux (Indian tribe)
Funston, Frederick	Boswell	Lords, House of
Alcott, Louisa May	Newport News, Va.	Deneen, Charles S.
Yukon	Ulysses	Decatur, Ill.
Corot	Seward, Wm. H.	Normandy
Cherbourg	Mt. Vernon (Wash-	Haydn (musician)
Wright (Wilbur &	ington Estate)	Clay, Henry
Orville, brothers)	Bryn Mawr (college)	Tartar
Irving, Henry	Aryan (race)	Islam (Moham-
Mac Dowell, Edward	Gainsborough	medanism)
Caruso	Sphinx	Burton, Senator
Crimean War	Pullman (Car Co.)	Theodore
Sheridan, Phil	Burbank, Luther	Sheffield, England
Racine, Wis.	Tyndall	Tacitus
Valparaiso, Chili	Debs, Eugene V.	Rodin, Auguste
Parker, Gilbert	Manet, Claude	
	Jesuit	
	Smith College	
	McClellan, George B.	
	(general)	

Sherman, John	Orleans (city)	Plymouth, England
James River	Ku Klux Klan	Eugene (Empress)
Erie, Pa.	Newman (Cardinal)	Ozark Mountains
Drake, Sir Francis	Cornwall	Yorktown (battle; surrend.)
Sudermann	Alleghenies	Penrose, Boies
Westphalia	Herod	Bedouins
Champagne, France	New Year; New Year's Day	Rhodes, Cecil
Corinth; Corinthian	Victoria, British Columbia	Canary Islands
McCormick, Medill	Riley, James	Galilee (Sea of Galilee)
Amherst (college)	Whitcomb	Delhi, India
Hauptmann, G.	Kaffir	Skinner, Otis
Louis XVI	Long Island Sound	Rockford, Ill.
Marshall, Thomas	Pyramids	Provence, France
Belgrade	Harlem (N. Y. city borough)	Queenstown, Ireland
Locke, William J.	Trinidad (island)	Khartoum
Red Sea	Rossetti, Dante	Booth, Edwin (actor)
Crimea	Gabriel	Barbados
Kansas City, Kans.	Tory (English)	Nantucket
Crete	Prohibition	Lewis, J. Hamilton
Honduras	Pater, Walter	"West" (American, Western Hemisphere)
Slovak	Pyle, Howard	Lind, Jenny
Gerard, James W.	Whitehall	Briand
Peter (Apostle)	Port Arthur	Granada, Spain
Cooper, James Fenimore	Madras	North Pole
Mitchel, John P.	Pyrenees	Occident
Michigan, Lake	Vanderbilt (family)	Hale, Edward Everett
Fontainbleau	Addison, Joseph	Gosse, Edmund
Cook County, Ill.	Canton, China	Connecticut River
"Gulf" (Gulf of Mexico)	Bessarabia	Turgenev
Picardy	Aesop	Fleet Street, London
Dunkirk, France	Alfred the Great	Leeds, England
John, (King of England)	Bloomington, Ill.	Washington, Booker T.
Key West	Amiens	Alexander II (Russia)
Berkeley, Calif.	Castile	Valley Forge
Jackson, "Stone-wall"	Brandeis, Judge Louis D.	Lemberg
Noyes, Alfred	White Mountains	Cummins, A. B. (senator)
Goethals	Strand, London	Central Europe
Suffrage (Woman)	Wilmington, Delaware	Brown University
Smyrna	Punjab	Morley, John
Seine River	Sheridan, Richard	Sardinia
Lorimer, William M.	Brinsley	Schurz, Karl
Transylvania	Oakland, Calif.	Stock, Frederick
Kreisler, Fritz	Parthenon	Berger, Victor L.
Moravia	Bourbon	Bowdoin College
Adams, John Quincy	Depew, Chauncey M.	Garibaldi
Greenland	Britons (ancient & modern)	Manila Bay
Sofia	Seville, Spain	Jamestown, Va.
Orlando (Premier of Italy)	Herodotus	
7 Unionists (England-Ireland)	Taylor, Bayard	

Vanderbilt, Cornelius	Dneister (river)	Latin Quarter, Paris
St. Lawrence (river)	Grand Central Station, (N. Y.)	Shubert, Lee (Theatrical Management)
Ghent, Belgium	Coblenz	Provincetown, Mass.
Hyde Park, London	Smith, Francis Hopkinson	Brown, John
Butler, Nicholas Murray	Garrison, Lindley M.	Sultan, Turkey
Farrar, Geraldine	Crown Prince (Wilhelm)	Jacksonville, Fla.
Williams College	Versailles Peace Treaty	Monroe, James
Lombardy	Tirpitz, von	Montgomery, Ala.
Arnold, Benedict	Costa Rica	Sonora, Mexico
Jacob (Biblical)	6 Pennsylvania Ave. (Washington, D.C.)	Bering Sea
Schenectady, N. Y.	Choate, Joseph Hodges	Wichita, Kans.
Elgin, Ill.	Colorado River	Mill, John Stuart
Meade, George G.	"New World" (usually America)	Highland Park, Ill.
Whitman (Gov. of N. Y.)	Easter	Champaign, Ill.
Leavenworth, Fort	Pensacola, Fla.	Keller, Helen
Panama-Pacific Ex-position	Van Dyck, Anton	Wurtemberg
Oberlin College	Alfonso XIII (present king of Spain)	Archimedes
Galesburg, Ill.	Yangtze Kiang	Nuremberg
Owen, Robert L.	Kimberley	Confucius
Tarbell, Ida	New York Central Railroad	Natal
Fielding, Henry	Pliny	Zangwill, Israel
Ferdinand III (King of Bulgaria)	Zion, Zionism (etc.)	Lynn, Mass.
Pasteur, Louis	Yeats, Wm. Butler	Ceylon
Bell, Alexander Graham	Montaigne	Camden, N. J.
Beveridge, Albert J.	Pan-American (Federation, Congress etc.)	Great Northern Rail-way
Tagore, Rabindranath	Hankow, China	New Brunswick, Canada
East River (N. Y. city)	Edward I (King of England)	Illinois Central Ry.
Woolworth, F. W.	Chinatown, (N. Y. city)	Stanton, Edward M.
Colombia	Cork, Ireland	Justice (Dept. of U. S.)
Volga (river & district)	Garrick, David	Turkestan
Catt, Mrs. Carrie Chapman	New South Wales	Morris, Gouvernour
Vosges	Iberian	Schleswig (incl. Schleswig-Holstein)
Wister, Owen	Elba, Isle	Farragut (Admiral)
Bastile	Buchanan, James	Iroquois
Grand Canyon	Continental Congress (American)	Sullivan, Roger C.
Gonzales (general)	Fremont (Gen. J.C.)	Hayward, William
St. Mihiel (battle & place)	Erie, Lake	East Africa, (incl. British, German)
Canal Zone, Panama	Ann Arbor, Mich.	Pericles
Rouen	South Bend, Ind.	Quincy, Ill.
Blue Ridge Mountains	Gould, Jay	Fargo, N. D.
Great Lakes Naval Station	Borneo	Concord, N. H.
Kronstadt		Greenwich, England
Herzegovina		Cohan, George M.
		Beauregard (General)
		"George Sand"
		Locke, John
		Norsemen

- Ural (mts., district,
etc.)
Renan, Ernest
Brontes (Charlotte,
Emily & family)
Oppenheim, E.
 Phillips
Russell Sage
 Foundation
Tigris
Covent Garden
Butte, Mont.
Custer, General
 George A.
1848 German Revo-
lutionary Move-
ment
Interior Department
 of the U. S.
Commerce, U. S.
 Dept. of
Trollope, Anthony
Page, Thomas Nelson
Armada (Spanish)
Björnson, Björn-
stjerne
Grenfell, Dr. Wilfred
Jones, John Paul
Judea
Robespierre
Washington, Univer-
sity of
Abyssinia
Field, Marshall
Troy, N. Y.
Ionia; Ionic
Miami, Florida
Peter the Great
Pizarro
Madeira (island)
Brest-Litovsk
Peary, Robert E.
Blaine, James G.
Mars (planet)
Turin, Italy
Abbott, Dr. Lyman
Adrianople
- Marshall, John
 (Chief Justice)
Fort Worth, Texas
Reno, Nevada
Jaffa (Joppa)
Parish, Maxfield
Acropolis
St. Gaudens, A.
Palisades (Hudson
River)
Froebel
Bar Harbor, Maine
Dunne (Governor &
 Mayor)
Waukegan, Ill.
McCutcheon, George
 Barr
Burgundy
Dobrudja
Gibson, Charles Dana
Agassiz
Herrick, Robert
Colorado Springs,
 Colo.
Marlowe, Christopher
Pascal
Gethsemane
Phoenicia
Burr, Aaron
Pierce, Franklin
 (President)
Civil Service
Evansville, Ind.
George IV (King of
 Great Britain)
Santa Fe, N. Mex.
Kenyon, William S.
Lake Forest, Ill.
Carson, Sir Edward
Creole
Garden, Mary
Gilbert, W. S.
 (composer)
Mayflower
Cyrus (King Cyrus
 the Great)
Uruguay
- Hannibal (Carthag-
inian general)
Henry, Patrick
Irish Sea
Smith, Captain John
Hitchcock, Gilbert M.
Bank of England
Massanet, Jules
Lodge, Sir Oliver
Aztecs
Lenroot, Irving
Verona; Veronese
Burke, Billie
Catskill (mts.)
Java
Art Institute
 (Chicago)
Metz
Bergson, H.
Mackinac
Shaw, Dr. Anna
 Howard
Brooks, Phillips
Bethlehem, Pa.
Monet (artist)
Rachmaninoff
Rubenstein, Anton
Berkshires
Oshkosh
Dewey, John
Pankhurst, Mrs.
Thrace
Tuscany
Rostand, Edmund
Madero, Francisco
Cecil, Lord Robert
Pickford, Mary
Cavell, Edith
Lansing, Michigan
House (Colonel)
Coolidge, Calvin
Chateau Thierry
Croatia
Wickersham, George
 W.
Crowder (General)
Galli Curci
Trentino

CHAPTER XIV

THE APPLICATION OF METHODS OF RESEARCH TO MAKING THE COURSE OF STUDY IN HISTORY

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There is, perhaps, no subject in the curriculum whose value and content have been the subjects of so much dispute as history. The more important of the problems in controversy may be stated as follows:

- I. Is the sum total of the various values of history sufficient to justify its present place in the course of study?
- II. What are the most important uses which are made of history in life outside the school?
- III. What organization of history is most efficient:
 1. In relation to its main functions in life outside the school?
 2. From the standpoint of teaching?
- IV. What subject matter in history is most important for the development of proper knowledges, proper abilities, and proper attitudes in relation to the solution of modern problems?
 1. What are the problems?
 2. What items contribute most to the solution of these problems?
- V. How should history be graded?
- VI. What are the most efficient methods of teaching history?
- VII. What are the best tests for measuring the degree to which the purposes as set out in the course of study have been accomplished?

The attempts to solve the last three problems, those of grading, methods of teaching, and methods of testing, cannot be treated in

the space available for this chapter. It should be pointed out, however, that in the main the solution of these problems must wait until we have answered the questions relating to the selection and organization of the subject matter which is to make up the course of study.

The investigations of these several problems vary in quantity and in quality. It is the purpose of this chapter to review the various research techniques which have been proposed or used in their solution and to evaluate the resulting data. The investigations reviewed are representative rather than inclusive. They are meant to illustrate the methods used up to the time of the present *Yearbook*, but not to include the articles herein printed.

I. IS THE SUM TOTAL OF THE VALUES OF HISTORY SUFFICIENT TO JUSTIFY ITS PRESENT PLACE IN THE COURSE OF STUDY? SHOULD THE EMPHASIS ON HISTORY BE INCREASED OR DIMINISHED?

The commonest method of attacking this problem has been to collect the opinions of supposedly competent judges. Such attempts have not been very satisfactory. In the first place, the opinions are not in agreement. In the second place, the basis of judgment is not always the same. While this method, up to the present time, has not given very valuable results, there is reason to believe that a refinement of it would lead to results of some significance.

Two other procedures have been used by the writer: (1) a study of library withdrawals; (2) the analysis of books published in a given period. For the first, the records of the central and branch libraries of New York City were used. These records are available for several years, so that it is possible to avoid any likelihood of undue warping of the reading habits due to unusual conditions, such as the late war. After a cursory examination of the reports for various years, the year before the war was chosen for intensive study since it seemed free from unusual influences which might increase or decrease the amount of history normally read.

It was discovered that one book in every seven consulted in the reference division of the New York City Library was a history. This is more than were consulted in geography, travel, all the

sciences, and all technologies combined. Eight percent of the books drawn for home use were classed as history or biography, as compared with three percent technology, three percent in science, and three percent in geography and travel combined. It is of course possible that the assignments which teachers in the public schools and colleges make to historical books raise this percentage. On the other hand, an analysis of books drawn under vacation privileges, while showing an increase in fiction, does not show that history, as compared with other non-fiction classifications, suffers a falling off.

It must also be kept in mind that many books classified under other headings contain a great deal of history. Some of them are almost wholly historical in both content and in point of view. It may be significant, too, for the purposes of this discussion, that the percentage of books in history drawn by children is still larger as compared with the percentage in science, useful arts, geography, and travel.

A similar method was used by Jordan in his investigation of "Children's Interests in Reading." His tables show that, while the withdrawals in history are few as compared with those in fiction, they are numerous as compared to other non-fiction classifications.

This method is somewhat crude and inaccurate because of deficiencies in the conventional method of library classification. A tabulation of the actual titles of books withdrawn and an analysis of each book would probably give significant data on (*a*) the amount of history read, (*b*) the type of history read. These data, supplemented by a tabulation of questions asked by readers at the librarian's desk, would certainly help to show how great the demand is for history.

The study of publishers' lists was undertaken on the assumption that a publisher does not continue to publish a kind of book for which there is no demand. He has a constant check of a substantial sort upon his judgments as to how the reading tastes of the public are distributed. The following data were secured from the summary given in *The World Almanac* for 1915. The data are for the books published in 1913. It must be kept in mind, of course, that these figures are for titles, not for copies. This summary pro-

vides a basis for comparison with the data secured from library withdrawals during the same year. In 1913 there were published in America 12,230 books distributed as follows:

1. Biography and history.....	1,219
2. Fiction	1,156
3. Sociology and economics.....	977
4. Theology and religion.....	944
5. Science	790
6. Applied science, technology, engineering.....	781
7. Literature, essays	733
8. Law	692
9. Poetry and drama.....	679
10. Juvenile books	622
11. Medicine and hygiene.....	600
12. Description, geography, and travel.....	558
13. Agriculture	490
14. Philology	335
15. Education	324
16. Philosophy	324
17. Fine Arts	264
18. Business	221
19. Games, sports, and amusements.....	194
20. General encyclopedias, general works—bibliographies, miscellaneous	152
21. Domestic Economy	145
22. Music	111

It will be seen by the table that approximately one book in every ten published in 1913 may be classified as history or biography, as compared to less than one in twenty that fall under geography and travel; one in ninety under domestic economy; one in sixty under business; one in fifteen under science and engineering; and one in twenty-five under agriculture. In the summary of the last *World Almanac*, the number of books on history and biography is shown to be considerably higher than those of other classifications.

Nor is this distribution peculiar to America. Notice the following distributions in England, Germany, and France:

IN ENGLAND:

History and biography.....	1066
Geography and travel.....	793

Science	732
Technology	699
Agriculture, gardening	248
IN GERMANY (1912) :	
Natural Sciences, and Mathematics.....	1852
History	1542
Geography	1418
IN FRANCE:	
History	1253
Science	549
Geography and travel.....	428

The data from publishers' lists are probably not so significant as those based on library withdrawals. In order to use these lists as actual measures of the social demand for history, the size of the editions for each book would have to be known. The fact that a book is published does not give a complete measure of the number of people who read it. Publishers occasionally err in their judgment of the market. Moreover, some books are read by only one person, if at all. Other books are re-read and passed around to friends. In spite of these deficiencies, valuable data could be obtained from a detailed analysis of one book of each edition published during a given period. Dr. Rugg's study of historical material in the best books dealing with modern problems also helps to answer this question.

The data from the publishers' market reinforce those secured from the study of library withdrawals. If these measures were to be taken at face value as an index of the social demand for history, one would have to conclude that there is a very great injustice done to history in the elementary school, since the amount of time given to it is but from four to five percent of the entire school time.

It may be urged, of course, that, while the data from libraries and publishers' lists show the amount of history that people actually read, they do not show the amount which they should read. It may be pointed out that from similar reasoning one could conclude that the second largest emphasis in the course of study should be upon the study of fiction. In other words, some may urge that

the reading of so much history is a form of depravity approaching that manifested by the popular novel fiend. To get more evidence on this point a few librarians and the managing editors of some of our largest publishing houses were asked to give their estimates of the type of individual who reads history as compared with those who read other types of books. The answers were in agreement that in so far as the reader devoted to history represented a type, it was a type ranking relatively high in ability. In other words, the history-reading group was made up of our "best people."

It seems likely that with better techniques, the study of library withdrawals, publishers' lists, and the judgments of competent people would yield valuable information. Such data as are in existence would seem to indicate that history occupies a very large place in the reading of thoughtful people. It seems probable that this may be taken as one indication of its value.

II. WHAT ARE THE MOST IMPORTANT USES WHICH ARE MADE OF HISTORY IN LIFE OUTSIDE THE SCHOOL?

An attempt to answer this question is made in the *Teachers College Record*, for September, 1915. A questionnaire to a limited number of individuals indicated that the two most important functions are (*a*) to contribute to leisure reading, and (*b*) to throw light on the solution of modern problems.

On the basis of frequency or universality of use in life the controlling principle of organization in history would be found in its dramatic quality. However, this is worthless as a principle of organization; and a course of study based on this principle would degenerate into a mere list of tales. Moreover, *frequency* of use is but one of the criteria by which one may determine the importance of instructional materials. The '*cruciality*' of a given use must also be taken into account. For this reason, many have urged that the present problems of social, economic, and political reconstruction are so pressing that we are justified in making their interpretation the basis upon which to select and organize the material of a course in history. This affords a definite criterion for rejecting and selecting subject matter and at the same time promises to secure most of the values which are legitimately claimed

for history instruction. At any rate, the tendency at present seems to be to accept the proposal that the materials in history be selected and organized to contribute in the fullest degree to the intelligent interpretation of the social life of the present and near future, to an appreciation of its values, and to the solution of its problems. Most of the other values, such as the gaining of vicarious experience, moral backing, patriotism, the prevention of provincialism, and an understanding of newspaper allusions, will be gotten, it is claimed, as by-products. This question should be studied further by the same general method used by the writer but with improvement in technique and in the quantity of data collected. Many of the bitterest controversies arise out of failures to agree as to what the function of history really is.

III. WHAT ORGANIZATION OF HISTORY IS MOST EFFICIENT IN RELATION TO ITS MAIN FUNCTIONS IN LIFE OUTSIDE THE SCHOOL AND FROM THE STANDPOINT OF TEACHING?

It is very essential to distinguish between the problem of determining what facts are to be selected and the problem of deciding how these facts should be organized. We may agree, for example, that the history of the invention of the steam-engine should be taught, but disagree as to whether it shall be taught as a part of the history of the period in which the invention was made, as a part of the history of the development of power machines, as a part of the history of the industrial revolution, or as a part of the present problem of conserving fuel and power. This problem could possibly be solved by building up complete organizations on each of the proposed bases and then studying the serviceable relation of each type of organization in interpretation of the more important modern problems.

There are also problems of organization which are of a pedagogical nature. For example:

- (1) Should history in the primary grades be organized around biographies?
- (2) Should it be organized in the elementary school to emphasize dramatic interests?
- (3) Should history be taught chronologically by periods, or should one aspect of the development of civilization be taken up at

a time? If it is taught by periods, should the emphasis be upon the social and economic phase of history, or upon the political?

- (4) Where history is organized around modern problems, should the movement be anticipatory or regressive? For example, should the steps in improving transportation be taken up chronologically, or should the modern problems of transportation be studied first before taking up the historical background?
- (5) Should history be limited to that which is gotten incidentally in connection with other subjects, such as civics, economics, or sociology?
- (6) What is the relation of history to geography and civics in the first six grades? To civics, sociology, and economics in the junior and senior high school?
- (7) Should all social sciences be combined into a general social science?
- (8) Should history be organized around projects?

Answers to all of these questions have been attempted in various schools in so far as rough trials under actual classroom conditions can be called attempted answers, but in no case, so far as the writer is aware, have these trials been sufficiently methodical and refined to call them "experiments." A possible exception is to be found in some of the experiments in correlation. When a school has tried a given organization, the various observers do not always agree as to the success of the experiment. We shall probably not be able to conduct satisfactory experiments to determine which organization is most efficient, either for the purposes of thinking in life or for the pedagogical purposes of the school, until we have determined which items of history are most important and have constructed tests which will measure in an accurate manner the degree to which, under a given organization, these items have been taught. Since, however, there is a wide acceptance of the proposal that history be selected to contribute to the fullest extent to the solution of modern problems, it is quite proper to proceed to discover what subject matter in history is most essential for this purpose. With the possible exception of the analysis of textbooks by Bagley and Rugg, all studies hereafter considered in this chapter were made from this point of view.

IV. WHAT SUBJECT MATTER IN HISTORY IS MOST IMPORTANT FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF PROPER KNOWLEDGES, PROPER ABILITIES, AND PROPER ATTITUDES IN RELATION TO THE SOLUTION OF MODERN PROBLEMS?

This question must be divided into two parts: (1) What are the most important modern problems? (2) What items of history make the largest contribution to the solution of these problems?

1. What are the Important Modern Problems?

A number of investigators have attempted to answer this first question, and with varying techniques.

Lists given in books and magazines. The writer has analyzed and tabulated such lists of modern problems as are to be found in books and magazine articles. For example, such a list of social problems appears in Elwood's *Modern Social Problems*. This method does not yield much of value, because the writers are either not attempting to give a full and well-balanced list of modern problems, or are influenced unduly by special biases or interests. It does not seem worth while to carry such research further.

The newspaper-magazine method. One may make the assumption that important problems will find a place in our newspapers and magazines, and that the frequency of their occurrence and the space devoted to them give a reasonable approximation to their relative importance. This method is illustrated by a study which Prof. J. A. Sharon made of two weeks' issues of each of nine representative newspapers. His report of the most important problems as measured by the number of articles and the total amount of space devoted to them is as follows:

	<i>No. of articles</i>	<i>Total length in linear inches</i>
1. Taxation	92	1,058.00
2. Foreign relations (not immigration)	30	701.75
3. Suffrage	51	559.75
4. Monopoly and legislation	45	551.75
5. Public service commissions	37	450.50
6. Liquor and prohibition	31	339.50
7. Money and banking	14	186.00
8. Employers and labor	7	102.50
9. Pensions (all kinds)	7	88.00

10. Workmen's compensation	10	78.75
11. Conservation of natural resources.....	3	42.00
12. Child labor	1	2.80
13. Miscellaneous	50	760.75

This type of research should be continued for newspapers and extended to magazines. Such studies would show, at least, what problems are kept before the public through periodical literature. That, in itself, would be an important contribution. Of course, an appropriate technique would have to be devised for selecting pertinent material to be scored, and for tabulating and interpreting the data collected. The actual analysis of periodicals must be done by individuals adequately trained in the social sciences. The factors affecting the reliability of newspaper analyses are discussed later in this article.

An analysis of political platforms. A very interesting study of the permanence and relative importance of certain problems was made by Dr. B. B. Bassett. Assuming that the makers of platforms are competently sensitive to the problems of each period, he analyzed (1) "the platforms of all the political parties since 1832;" (2) "the state platforms in non-presidential years from 1889 to the present time;" (3) "all the state platforms of the major parties in one year (1910);;" (4) "the platforms of the major parties in certain selected states, viz., California, Indiana, and New York since 1890;" (5) "all platforms of the parties in Iowa since 1889;" and (6) "the platforms of one southern state." His tables cannot be given here. For a more detailed report, the reader is referred to the *Seventeenth Yearbook, Part II*, of this Society, or to Dr. Bassett's doctor's thesis.

This is a most comprehensive and a most scholarly study. It attacks directly the problem of selecting major problems or topics. It gives, at least, the problems which have confronted the voters at the polls, and, while present and future conditions may change the relative place assigned to certain problems in his tables, it is unlikely that any of the major problems given will drop out of sight. In most cases, moreover, shifts in emphasis will be in the direction of tendencies already indicated in his tables. His study closed with 1916. It is desirable to bring his investigation to date,

and perhaps to compare his data with those obtained from a study of the platforms of the parties of other great nations.

The judgments of representative citizens. We have long needed a study of the sensitiveness of the general public to civic instruction. Such a study was begun at Iowa State Teachers College and is now being completed as a master's thesis by Walter D. Cocking at the University of Iowa. Mr. Cocking secured the co-operation of the following groups: 500 club women not engaged in business, or in professional work; the superintendent of schools of each of the 99 counties in the state of Iowa; 50 city officials so selected as to equalize proportional representation between large cities and small towns; 99 county officials, other than superintendents of schools; the president of the County Farm Bureau in each of the 99 counties; 100 city superintendents of schools; 150 teachers of civics in junior and senior high schools; 50 state officials; 100 representative members of the American Legion nominated for this work by the state adjutant; 100 clergymen, selected to represent the leading religious sects of the state; a miscellaneous group of 25 people selected from semi-public organizations not otherwise represented.

In addition, 50 representatives were chosen from each of the following businesses or professions:—bankers, lawyers, commercial travelers, common laborers, merchants, working women, and editors. These representatives were selected by the city superintendents in 50 Iowa towns. More home-makers were chosen than people from any other class, as that group is the largest of the ones that co-operated.

About two out of five of those selected handed in complete returns. This proportion was maintained fairly evenly throughout all of the classifications, so that the returns represent a sampling of all these various interests. The following problems were reported most frequently:

1. Relation to Others, or Community Life
2. Obedience to Law. Law Enforcement
3. Rights and Duty of Suffrage
4. Respect and Love for Flag and Country
5. Study of Constitution, Laws, and Courts
6. Rights and Obligations of Taxation

7. Health and Sanitation
8. Responsibility of the Individual
9. Value and Importance of Education
10. Responsibility, Rights, and Duties as a Citizen
11. Honesty
12. History of Our Government
13. Thrift
14. Cooperation
15. Reverence for God and Bible Study
16. Morals
17. Care of Public Property
18. The American Home and Home Life
19. Respect for Officials
20. The Immigrant Problem
21. Memorizing Patriotic Songs and Selections
22. Biographies of Great Men
23. Dignity of Labor
24. Courtesy
25. Public Office—A Public Trust
26. Community Organizations
27. Unselfishness, "Golden Rule"
28. Study of Local, County, State, and National Government
29. Current Events
30. Justice and Tolerance
31. Value and History of Political Parties
32. Sacrifice
33. One Language—the English Language
34. Jury Service
35. Elections
36. International Relations
37. Interdependence of Social Groups
38. Conservation of Resources
39. The Awfulness of War
40. Value of Worth-While Things
41. Care of Criminals
42. Safety First
43. Punctuality in Discharge of Duty
44. Roads

In spite of great care in the questionnaire, it will be seen that many of the replies are too general to be serviceable. Nevertheless, Mr. Cocking's results give the best picture we have had so far of the civic aspirations of the leading citizens in one commonwealth.

Mr. Cocking's detailed data and their interpretation should be exceedingly instructive.

Analysis of problems discussed in books. Another method, one which must be given very serious consideration, is that employed by Harold Rugg at the Lincoln School of Teachers College. He and his colleagues have determined the "big and insistent problems and issues" of contemporary life by tabulating the contents of outstanding books in the different fields. He secured his list of some 200 books by four methods: (1) by compiling titles from the *Book Review Digest* for six years, (2) by compiling titles from the reviews of six weekly journals for three years, (3) by compiling titles from the Columbia University library, (4) by securing recommendations from eighty specialists in the various fields. From these books, some 300 problems were formulated, together with the questions and generalizations that must be answered and used in discussing the problems. This method is presented in full in Chapter XV and an illustration of the material that is obtained from it is given in Chapter XI.

After a careful study of these various attempts to determine a list of the most evident modern problems, the writer would suggest that a reliable list of important problems may be obtained in the following manner:

- (1) *Select a preliminary list of problems.* This may be made up of the problems most frequently found in
 - (a) An extended study of newspapers and magazines.
 - (b) The state and national platforms of political parties.
 - (c) Lists made out by specialists in each of the social sciences.
 - (d) Lists prepared by representative citizens, other than teachers of social sciences.
 - (e) Modern books, as shown by Rugg's analysis.

All problems occurring with considerable frequency in any or all of these lists should be brought together into the preliminary list.

- (2) *Use the "method of judgments" in determining the relative value of these problems.* Have these problems rated by subject matter specialists in each of the social sciences. A compilation and statistical treatment of these ratings will give a list greatly superior to anything we have at the present time. The best

statistical treatment is that used in the construction of scales which are based on judgments.

There would still be left the task of deciding what should be taught concerning the proper solution of each problem and the proper understanding of the conditions which gave rise to it. Here, again, the method of judgments seems to promise the most immediate and the most reliable solution.

It should be clear that this task is not the task of determining what history should be known in order to understand these problems. It is rather the task of deciding with respect to each problem what the final attitudes should be, what practical ability the student should have in dealing with this problem, and what knowledges he should have of the immediate problem and the conditions which gave rise to it.

2. What Items in History Contribute Most to the Solution of these Modern Problems?

It is not easy to determine what history is necessary in order that these problems be made intelligible. Many types of investigation have been made in the effort to answer this question. A brief classification of these types is as follows: (a) the method of judgment, including the work of committees and questionnaires sent to supposedly competent judges in the fields of history and social sciences; (b) the newspaper-magazine method; (c) the analysis of books and articles dealing with modern problems; (d) the analysis of textbooks in history; (e) the analysis of courses of study. Not all analyses of courses of study or history texts are comparable with the other types of investigations, since some of the investigators did not set out specifically to find what history is needed to understand modern problems. They are valuable, at least, in that they depict the present status of our history instruction, as indicated by the textbooks most frequently used, and by printed courses of study. These various types of investigations will be illustrated in the discussions which follow. From the experience which the writer has had with graduate students who have attempted such analyses, he has realized the crudeness of the evidence collected by these methods, with the exception of that of

the carefully trained historian. And yet with all this crudity, data so obtained may be superior to opinions of the *ipse dixit* type, or those given in an off-hand way, even though these opinions be offered by the most eminent educational authority or by the most eminent historian.

(a) *The method of judgments.* Where the method of opinion or judgment is allowed to operate without restricting techniques, many errors are likely to creep in. Such errors may be shown by an examination of the Report of the Committee of Eight. This report, it must be admitted at the outset, is a marked advance upon most courses of study which we have had up to this time. It has made possible the standardization of courses of study throughout the country and has encouraged competent individuals to produce textbooks of a distinctly superior sort. The great improvement of books for the sixth grade is an example of its influence.

Time will permit only a discussion of the selection and the weighting of the values which are to make up the course of study for the elementary school. A brief description will recall the course to the reader's mind. In the first three grades, the time is given over to the study of Indian life and to the study of men and events concerned with special days. In the fourth and fifth grades simple stories, for the most part biographical, dealing with discovery, exploration, pioneer life, and a few events since that time make up the work. The really systematic presentation of the subject begins in the sixth grade, which is given over to the European background. The seventh grade starts with the period of colonization and ends with the study of the Revolution. The eighth grade finishes the history to the present time. For the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades, the work is outlined in considerable detail.

The Committee aids us further by assigning a weight to each of the more important topics in the outline. For example, Greek history is given a weight of 5, Roman history of 7, etc. The committee also suggests the time allotment for each grade. By reversing the relation between these allotments and units of weight, one may roughly approximate a similar weighting for the first five grades in which the units of value are not indicated by the Committee.

It is precisely this praiseworthy attempt to help the teacher by indicating relative values that shows the need of special techniques in using the method of judgments. In the words of the Committee, "numbers indicating, in the judgment of the Committee, their relative value, are appended either to a single topic or to groups of topics." And yet, it is most probable that the Committee never weighted the topics relative to each other, *even in their opinion*, for how could such weights as the following have been assigned?

Cortes and DeSoto	3	Revolt of the Spanish Colonies (Including the Monroe Doctrine)	2
Columbus	4	Industrial Revolution in England and America	4
King Alfred	3	Great changes in Germany, Italy and France (History of the 50 years preceding 1909)	3
Coming of the Pilgrims	4	Causcs of the Revolution	4
Raleigh and Gilbert	4	Reconstruction to 1872	3
Wars in America between France and England	8	French Revolution	2

When the topics are grouped, even more striking comparisons are found. In the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades 80 points are given to the period from the discovery of American down to, but not including, the grievances which led to the American Revolution; while but 11 points are assigned to the period in United States History from the close of the Civil War to 1909, and but 10 points to the period from 1793 to 1811. It must be kept in mind, too, that much of the history of the first four grades deals with Indian life, exploration, and colonization. When the various units contained in this report are classified according to their contribution to military, political, economic, or social phases of history, it is seen that the political and military phases are given a very disproportionate emphasis. However, the emphasis on the political and military phases, as recommended by the report, is less than that found in the ordinary textbooks, as shown by the earlier studies made by Bobbitt, and by the later studies made by Rugg.

This disproportionate weighting of political and military history might be somewhat obviated if the political and military prob-

lems were given in their social and economic setting, so that the teacher could see how the social and industrial problems had given rise to the political and military; but neither in the texts nor in the course of study of the Committee is such connection made sufficiently clear.

Both in the course of study of the Committee and in the texts, the outline of the progress of the social, economic, and artistic phases of civilization is extremely episodical and fragmentary. The units of progress are of the political and military, rather than of the social or economic type, although in these last two are to be found the threads which really mark the continuity of history.

The questionnaire represents another very common method of collecting judgments. This method is illustrated in the articles of Professor Bagley in the *Fourteenth Yearbook*, and in the chapter by Marston, McKeown, and Bagley in the *Seventeenth Yearbook* of this Society. The results of these investigations give data of value in spite of the fact that only a small number of replies were tabulated. It must be kept in mind that the judgments asked for in these questionnaires constituted, in a sense, 'leading questions.' The attention of the judges was directed to certain types of historical information. For example, among the men of whom judgments were requested there were few artists, musicians, literary writers, great philosophers, inventors, or social reformers. In a similar way the questionnaire on dates had the effect of directing attention to certain conventional dates. Moreover, there was no request for a judgment upon the value of knowing approximate periods rather than specific dates. This is justifiable as a technique provided no report is desired on these additional points, but the investigator must limit his conclusions accordingly.

There is no doubt that a decided improvement in the course of study can be brought about by a more careful use of the method of choices, or judgments. These choices, or judgments, must necessarily be collected by means of questionnaires in order to get a sufficient number. When, however, this method is to be used, particular attention should be given to the following principles:

1. There must be competent judges. The minimal requirement is a training in history and the other social sciences.

2. There must be a sufficient number of judges to negate the effect of peculiarities on the part of a single judge.
3. There must be a clear statement of the point of view which is to govern the judgments.
4. It is probable that these judges should contribute in two ways; first, by making out a list of items of possible value; second, after these lists have been compiled, by rating all items according to their value.
5. The judgments should be made item by item, and not in one lump.
6. All data should be subjected to statistical treatment. The statistical treatment of choices, or judgments, as used in other fields by such investigators as Cattell, Thorndike, and Hillegas is most promising here.
7. There must be a willingness on the part of the investigator to regard himself as but one among many, and to bow to the majority, at least in so far as his research goes.

This method will give results more quickly than any other method worthy of being recommended, and should probably be relied upon to select the material for a tentative course of study, while data of a less subjective character are being collected.

Something has already been done, however, in the way of removing the selection of subject matter a little farther from the sphere of mere opinion or judgment. And while there is still in these attempts much of the subjective, much of crude judgment, and many limitations of individual training and insight, the beginnings noted below are extremely suggestive.

(b) *The newspaper-magazine method.* The technique of the newspaper-magazine method has already been somewhat illustrated in the description of Mr. Sharon's attempt to discover what the modern problems are. It is further illustrated in the study reported by Professor Bagley in the *Fourteenth Yearbook* of this Society and by Dr. Washburne's report in this *Yearbook*. Graduate students in Professor Bagley's class at the University of Illinois analyzed the "historical references and allusions in eighteen editions of the *Outlook* and *Literary Digest*, representing a period of seven years ending with 1913." The results of this study are too well known to need quoting here. As applied to items in history, this method of research is undoubtedly very much more difficult and much

less satisfactory than in such a study as that made by Mr. Sharon. The main difficulties in such an investigation are these: (1) References are likely to be properly scored, but needs for historical knowledge are likely to be passed over; (2) It is quite impossible for one who is not a trained historian to determine what history is essential to the proper understanding of a given issue of any magazine. From the nature of the method of investigation, only isolated items of historical knowledge are indicated. The larger units of historical knowledge are likely to be ignored.

In order to see how difficult it is to determine what history one needs to know for interpreting any modern problem, let readers of this chapter attempt to decide what history should be known in order to understand one week's issue of the *Survey*, say the week of December 28, 1918. Three possible procedures could be followed.

1. You could mark down cases where historical events, periods, conditions or persons are specifically mentioned. Such, for example, as the oppression of the Jews, Yorktown, Declaration of Independence, Marco Polo, etc. This is the method used under the direction of Professor Bagley, the results of which are reported in the *Fourteenth Yearbook* of this Society. The most complete study of this type is that made by Dr. Washburne. It must be obvious that, although these data are welcome as so much evidence, they are not fully adequate for our purposes. If actual mention is made of any individual or of any event of which the reader is ignorant, he is made aware of that ignorance and so may look the matter up in the encyclopedia or in other works of reference.

2. You could attempt to determine what history is needed but not definitely referred to. Much of the history which is most serviceable would not be referred to. Suppose, for example, one takes up the discussion of the bills on the regulation of child labor in the South. No definite mention is made of any historical event, persons, or conditions, and yet to understand properly this problem the very minimal requirement, in addition to the special history of child labor, would be a knowledge of the difficulties attending the industrial and social reconstruction in the South, and a knowledge of the problem of labor in relation to the industrial revolution. The historical development of many other attending

social and ethical problems should also be known. This illustrates a real need for knowing history. To be ignorant and not to know that one is ignorant is one of the worst kinds of ignorance!

3. You may attempt to discover the degree to which your attitudes toward the problems have been influenced by the study of history. In this type of analysis it is possible to check only the history which the reader consciously associates with the topic or problem which is being analyzed. Sometimes, however, an attitude, prejudice, or interpretation may be left after the historical material which is responsible for it has been forgotten. The reader not only does not think of this association; he cannot think of it. He is simply different from having studied the history, without being able to explain fully how it has come about.

In spite of obvious limitations, the newspaper-magazine method apparently is a step away from mere opinion in the direction of objective data. All the data are given in numerical terms, so that at least the method of attack is improved in definiteness.

The reliability of the data secured in this way is dependent upon several factors.

First, it depends upon the *representative quality* of the material analyzed. Clearly, unless the newspapers do actually contain, and in the right proportion, the really important problems of the date of issue, no amount of analysis could secure from such a source the history needed to understand these problems of the day. A study (as yet unpublished) made a few summers ago by Mr. Edgar Curry in a graduate class in education conducted by the writer at the University of Indiana, seemed to indicate that space allotments in newspapers would be a very faulty method of assigning relative values to the problems or phases of life in any community. For example, an analysis of one week's issues of five daily papers gave, according to the judgment of Mr. Curry, the following distribution.

	<i>Total average percent</i>
Trivial gossip	20.5
Sports	17.0
Business	15.8
Educational matters.....	15.0
Politics, national government, international affairs....	13.0

Crime and police.....								9.4
Fires, accidents								6.7
Demoralizing news								2.6

The high percentage of space given to certain kinds of news is, of course, a matter of common observation. The criticism would apply in a lesser degree to the case of relative values among *civic, economic, and social* problems. For example, while it would be unsafe to accept the amount of space given in a newspaper as a measure of the relative importance of public school problems and prize fighting, it would be much less dangerous to measure in that way the relative importance of any given civic problem as compared with any other civic problem.

In the second place, the reliability of the data depends upon the *amount of magazine or newspaper material analyzed*, and the distribution of the issues in point of time. Furthermore, if national problems are sought, a wide distribution in area must be insured.

In the third place, there must be some way of limiting the personal equation in scoring. It is clear that the investigator can not tell what history is needed to understand a given problem if he does not recognize the problem when he reads a treatment of it. To get some measure of such variability, eight graduate students were asked to analyze the civic problems occurring in one issue of the Chicago *Herald* according to the outline prepared by Mr. Sharon. The table shows how many times each problem was reported by each of the eight students.

Subject	<i>Student</i>							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Taxation	5	4	0	2	6	4	5	4
Workmen's compensation.....	6	1	0	0	4	0	10	0
Liquor and prohibition.....	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	0
Child labor	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Suffrage, election	8	4	5	3	12	10	12	5
Pensions, widows, mothers.....	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0
Public service commissions								
(Interstate commerce)	4	2	0	4	4	9	6	0
Employers and labor.....	5	22	1	5	7	7	10	6
Money and banking.....	3	4	8	2	3	15	13	3
Monopoly and legislation.....	14	6	0	14	9	19	13	4

Foreign relations (not including investigations)	29	12	4	12	20	18	36	12
Conservation	0	1	1	1	2	1	6	1
Pure Food	2	1	1	2	0	3	2	1
Immigration	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Reorganization of courts.....	0	0	1	0	0	19	2	0
Patronage	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0
Civil Service	0	0	2	0	1	1	0	0
Lobbyist	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Farm rentals	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Crime	5	12	1	13	0	0	10	0
Agriculture Department	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Divorce	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Army	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Postal service	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Education	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Preparedness	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5
 Totals.....	 43	 54	 30	 61	 77	 115	 137	 42

These differences are astounding, but they are what one may expect unless each heading is described in detail so that there can be no doubt as to what should be scored under any given heading, and unless the scorers are familiar with the field being analyzed. Of course, the more complete and similar the training of the scorers in the special subject being analyzed, the less will be the variability arising from this cause. Naturally, there is little variability in recording items which are specifically mentioned in the headlines or contents.

The fourth factor affecting the reliability of the data is the unit of measure used in scoring. A great variety of units have been suggested. It seems probable that some method of measuring the space accorded to any reference would be the most nearly representative of the true weights which the writers of the articles intend to assign, particularly when the periodical sets some limit upon the space allowed to any given department.

In summary, if the four limiting conditions outlined above are carefully attended to, it seems likely that an analysis of newspapers and magazines will give data suggestive and helpful to the curriculum-maker. At the very least, a careful and extensive study

conducted along these lines will indicate the problems which are kept before the people through the agency of periodical literature. This in itself would give data which could not be disregarded by anyone who wished to undertake in a practical way the improvement of the knowledge, habits, and ideals of any community with regard to these problems. Dr. Washburne's data clearly show what the references are which most frequently confront the newspaper reader.

Historical Subject Matter Found in Books Dealing with Modern Problems. In the *Sixteenth Yearbook, Part I*, the writer reported an investigation carried on with the co-operation of Professor Plum, of the Department of History of the State University of Iowa. In this investigation, members of the various social science fields at that University were asked to list the modern problems of greatest importance, and for each problem to list the books which gave the most intelligent treatment. Books which were plainly historical in treatment were excluded. As a check against the data obtained from these books, articles upon similar problems in the *International Encyclopedia* and in periodicals of the best type should be analyzed.

For the detailed description of method, results, and recommendations, the reader is referred to the original article. In brief, the study shows that if the data reported are taken at face value, one could conclude:

- (1) That the requirements with regard to certain dates in history are not justified.
- (2) That periods, rather than isolated dates, should be stressed.
- (3) That modern history should be given very much greater emphasis than early history.
- (4) That certain biographies have been neglected, while others have been over-emphasized.
- (5) That there should be very much larger emphasis than there is upon the social and industrial phases of history.

More recently Dr. Harold Rugg has completed a much more extensive study along similar lines. The books he has analyzed are perhaps of a more progressive and pioneer type than were the books studied by the author.

It seems clear that this method has in it much of promise. The method of research, however, needs to be improved. The following principles need especially to be emphasized:

- (1) The technique earlier recommended in this article should be used in determining the problems.
- (2) The most representative books dealing with each problem may be determined, (a) by having subject matter specialists make out a list of the best books, and (b) by submitting the books most frequently named in this preliminary list for rating by the same specialist. There would be an advantage in asking for the best book representing each of the divergent points of view in treating each problem.
- (3) The books should be analyzed by individuals who have had adequate training in history and in the social sciences.
- (4) The directions for scoring should be very explicit.
- (5) The problems covered by the books should be studied in at least two encyclopedias and in periodicals of the best sort. This will afford a basis of comparison.

With these provisions, such a study will undoubtedly produce very valuable results. And yet, because of the difficulty of getting adequate treatments of all significant modern problems, the results obtained will be of greatest service in affording data and stimulation for use in the method of judgments.

An Analysis of Texts. Perhaps the best-known study of modern textbooks in history is that reported by Bagley and Rugg in *Bulletin 16 of the University of Illinois, School of Education*. The authors carefully analyzed the content of 23 history textbooks published from 1865 to 1915 and interpreted their findings in a skillful manner. There was no attempt in this study to analyze the amount of history in the various texts which contributed directly to any or all of our modern problems. Such a study was undertaken a number of years ago by Bobbitt. A more extensive study has been completed by Harold Rugg and Earle Rugg and is reported in Chapters I and IV and in the Appendix of this *Yearbook*. Both of these investigations show the short-comings of our modern textbooks, provided one accepts the principle that the main function of history is to contribute to the intelligent solution of modern problems.

Naturally, studies of modern textbooks show what *is* or what *is not* in our present textbooks, rather than what *should* or *should not be* in them. Those who criticise these texts for their content and emphasis must find a justification for their criticism in sources which lie outside the texts themselves. Most of the criticisms are based upon assumptions that certain materials should or should not be taught. One finds it difficult to accept the theory that a crude sort of trial and error has operated to include valuable subject matter and to exclude material of little value. That such an influence has made itself felt to a very great degree seems unlikely after an examination of the texts in the light of the more direct evidence as to what the values in history really are. The studies of texts do, however, give us a basis for determining in what respects our books need most to be revised.

As a means of discovering what history is needed for an understanding of modern conditions, the analysis of texts is not so valuable as the other methods described in the preceding sections.

This statement is largely true also of courses of study. These courses show the present status-with respect to the time allotments, topics treated, grading, organization, reference materials, and the like. They are scarcely so reliable a measure of actual practice as textbooks, but may be a better indication of new tendencies. It seems probable that an analysis of the courses of study along with textbooks should be made at least once in ten years in order to have a basis of procedure in our practical steps for the improvement of teaching.

One may note, in passing, the various appraisals which have been made of modern texts by individuals and organizations representing special interests. One of the earliest of these is the study which Altschul made of the American Revolution in our school textbooks. Altschul interpreted his data to indicate that our textbooks in history were becoming increasingly anti-British. Since that time several investigators have sought to show the pro-British tendencies in some of the same histories. Representatives of other organizations have scrutinized or investigated our textbooks from the special point of view of race, religion, economic theory, or sectionalism. That there have always been attempts to

regulate the teaching of history and other social sciences is shown by a recent study of the factors influencing the teaching of American history which is being completed by Miss Bessie Pierce, Head of the History Department of the University High School, State University of Iowa. Miss Pierce has made a careful investigation of the nature of the attempted controls exerted through the uses of legislation, oaths of loyalty, teaching certificates, flag legislation and observance days, the propaganda of special societies, and through the reports of such committees as that appointed in New York City to review and evaluate texts in history.

Obviously, the history teacher and the textbook-maker would welcome an authoritative course of study constructed upon sound principles through the use of scientific methods. Such a course of study will give authors and teachers alike a platform upon which to stand in their efforts to present history impartially and for the good of the country as a whole.

We may congratulate ourselves upon the great strides which have been made in solving the problems involved in constructing such a course in history and the other social sciences. Some of the questions which were unanswered five years ago are now answered with a reliability sufficient for all practical purposes. This is true of our inquiries concerning newspaper and magazine references, the occurrence of issues in political platforms, and the status of textbooks and courses of study. A beginning has been made in gathering data to answer the other questions. Most important of all, we have developed the techniques by which, when they are refined, these questions can ultimately be answered.

CHAPTER XV

PROBLEMS OF CONTEMPORARY LIFE AS THE BASIS FOR CURRICULUM-MAKING IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

HAROLD O. RUGG

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In Chapter I and again in Chapter IV of this *Yearbook* it is shown very clearly that courses of study in the social sciences have been constructed by inadequate methods. The content of the material, its assignment to particular grades, and its modes of presentation have been determined by arm-chair opinion instead of by scientific investigation. Vigorous criticism has been made during the past ten years of the existing courses and of the methods by which they have been organized.

The protagonists of reorganization have proposed the use of methods which are far more objective. The methods which they propose are based upon the analysis of life needs. For example, to determine which historical and geographic allusions the masses of our people should understand for intelligent daily reading, an analysis has been made of the contents of newspapers and magazines.¹ To determine which facts of geographic location people should know, an analysis has been made of the actual activities of human beings; statistics have been compiled on populations, areas, exports and imports, wealth, and other things that relate to these needs. Opinions of specialists in geography have also been collected. In order to determine what the critical issues of the day are—as the politicians tell it—an analysis has been made of state and national political platforms.

These methods are much more scientific than the “committee” methods to which frequent references have been made. They secure facts which the curriculum-maker must have. In our part of the curriculum-making in the Lincoln School my colleagues and I are using the findings of these investigations with great care and interest.

¹See Supt. Washburne's discussion, Chapter XIII.

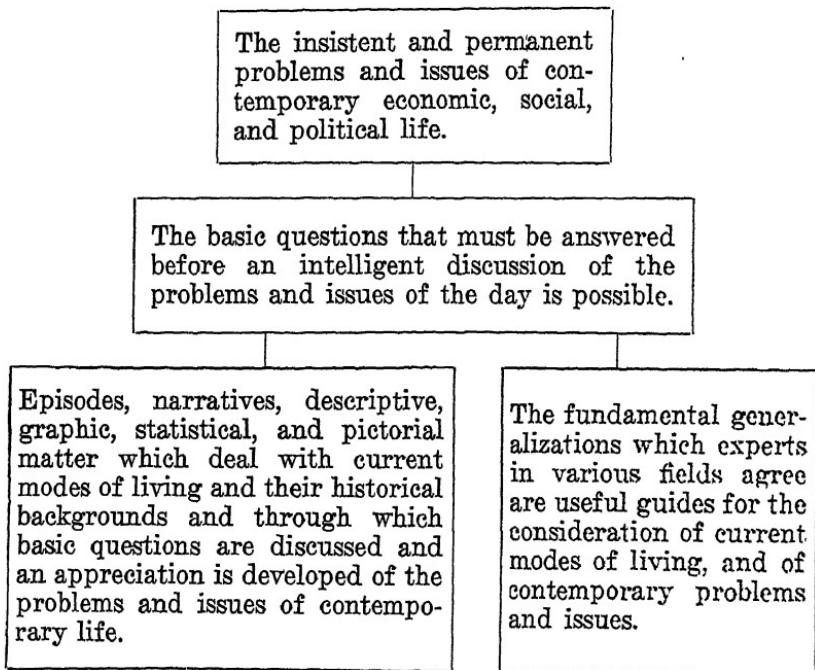
The studies referred to have two weaknesses. They tell the curriculum-maker a part, but only a part, of what children need to know to participate in social, economic, and political life as it is. They do not, however, furnish nearly all of the basis for making the curriculum, even for a static society. Their greater weakness is that they seek to fit children to take part in life as it is to-day. That is, they tend to ignore the demands of a rapidly changing society. We need, of course, to prepare our youth adequately to participate in life activities. That, the studies of current activities will help us to do. But we need also to prepare them to improve the situation in which they will find themselves as adults. We must equip them to be constructively critical of contemporary social, economic, and political organization. To do this we need, in addition to knowing what the current modes of living are, three vital types of information. First, we need to know in what respects experts think the current modes of living should be changed; second, what the insistent problems and issues of the day are; third, what the likely problems and issues are with which the growing generation will have to grapple. The first problem, needed changes in current modes of living, is being attacked by Mr. Harap. His studies, reported in Chapter XVI, represent a most important beginning in this huge task. His findings provide one important basis for making the curriculum in the social sciences.

But to make a curriculum for a troubled society—as ours surely is—we must bring the growing generation into contact with the most critical problems of that society. And we cannot be content with just that. The present social and political organization is changing rapidly. The most unusual political proposals of one decade become the basis of legislation in the next. So our society is not only troubled and faced with big and insistent problems; it is also dynamic, and our curriculum must be correspondingly so. Hence, it appears that a fundamental basis for the curriculum in the social sciences is a statement of insistent and permanent problems. It is not enough to fit our curriculum to the problems and issues of to-day—we must have the courage to use it to meet the problems which experts predict will continue to be insistent in the

adult life of the growing generation. This point of view says, implicitly at least, that the school, among other things, is our most important agency for the improvement of society. It asks: *Are we not delinquent representatives of that agency unless, besides making our curriculum keep pace with the changes in that society, we anticipate what those changes are going to be and use the curriculum to prepare children to meet them?*

That is precisely the basis for the experimental work in the social sciences which my colleagues and I are carrying on in the Lincoln School of Teachers College. The tentative course which has resulted from three years of study and observation is outlined in Chapter XI. The theory on which the course has been constructed has evolved gradually as the work proceeded. It is set forth in semigraphic form in the accompanying chart.

THE BASIS FOR THE PROPOSED COURSE IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES



In considering the chart the reader is asked to have in mind that the facts of the course will be checked against Mr. Washburne's newspaper and magazine analysis and Mr. Harap's study of modes of living. If any material of established social value is omitted by the application of the "problem" control, the probability is that most of it will be discovered in checking against these two studies.

In the last analysis, however, I would let the "problems and issues of contemporary life" control the content or organization of the course. Conceive of a group of children moving on through the school, grade by grade, maturing year by year. Assume, for the sake of the argument, that they will remain through the last grade of the school. What must the social science curriculum do for these boys and girls who are shortly to take up the duties of citizenship, enter industry, commerce or the professions, and make their contributions (or fail to make them) to the cultural life of the community? First, what shall we do, say in the twelfth grade, for that is the grade in which public-school pupils are most mature? My whole theory leads to the conclusion that they should study and discuss in that grade the problems and issues of industry, politics, and social affairs.

Do not mistake me; I suggest this for the twelfth grade only because the students are then as old mentally and socially as they ever are in public schools (with the possible exception of a few "junior colleges"). Of course we should experiment with these current "problems and issues" in lower grades as well—the eleventh, tenth, even the ninth. In the Lincoln School of Teachers College we are at the present time trying these very materials in the ninth grade. It is already clear that most of the "problems and issues" cannot be taught as "problems" at that level of mental maturity.

But in order to deal effectively in the eleventh or twelfth grade with problems and issues, it is necessary that all through their previous years they shall have read episodes, historical narratives, studied and made maps, dealt with graphic and pictorial matter, solved problems, and debated questions which were adapted to their stage of development and designed to develop an acquaintance with, and appreciation of, the problems that they are to meet in the

PROBLEM NO. IV. PROBLEM OF DEVISING METHODS BY WHICH IMMIGRANTS CAN BE EFFECTIVE
OF THE UNITED STATES.

1. DISTRIBUTION BY REGIONS

Authors	Into what particular regions did they go in the largest numbers?		What proportion go to the different sections of the country?		Why do they go into the industrial region?		Why have immigrants congregated in the very largest cities?		Why do immigrants go to cities now, when formerly they went to farms?		Where have the principal nationalities settled?		Which nationalities have settled on farms? In cities?	
	Page Number	No. of Pgs	Page Number	No. of Pgs	Page Number	No. of Pgs	Page Number	No. of Pgs	Page Number	No. of Pgs	Page Number	No. of Pgs	Page Number	No. of Pgs
Jenks, J. W.; Lauck, W. J.: <i>The Immigration Problem.</i>	80-88	✓	80-88	✓	80-88	✓			27	¾				
									99-100	1 ¼				
									101-103	2 ½				
Fairchild, H. P.: <i>Immigration.</i>	206-7 226-27 228-29 231-32	1 1 1 1 ½	206-7	✓	229-31	✓	229-31	2 ¼			227-28	1 ½		
Roberta, Peter: <i>The New Immigration.</i>	158-61	Q					156-61	1	156-61 162-62	✓ 1	156-61	✓		
	126-27 141-42 164 176-77 179	¾ 1 ½ 1 ½ 1 ½ 1 ½									116-17 150-51 158-55	1 ½ 1 ½ 2 ½	153-56 208-10 210-11 212-13 213-14	✓ 2 ½ 1 ¼ 1 1 ½
Warne, Frank J.: <i>The Tide of Immigration.</i>					224-25	¾					222-24	2 ½	148-49 225-26 232	2 2 1 ½
Hall, Prescott F.: <i>Immigration and Its Effects upon the United States.</i>	170-71 169-170	1 ½ 1 ¾	88-89	1 ¾							89-95	5 ½		
Kellor, Frances: <i>Immigration and The Future.</i>														
Smith, Richmond Mayo: <i>Emigration and Immigration.</i>	69-71	2					71-72 120-122	2 ¼ 1 ¾						
Abbott, Grace: <i>The Immigrant and the Community.</i>														

The checks (✓) mean that the question was discussed in the stated pages, but that the pages are counted under another question.

higher grade. In other words, the curriculum is to keep pace with the developing maturity of the pupil. But one criterion is of great importance at this point: *the questions and problems which are the basis of the course in any year shall be as mature as experiment proves it possible to use.* That is, some problems or questions upon which the discussion turns will be discovered to be intelligible to pupils even in the intermediate grades. Furthermore, the data from which an adequate understanding of them arises can thereby be discovered and assigned to their proper grade.

Before leaving these introductory matters, may I lay emphasis on the fact that it is not expected that even twelfth-grade pupils will *solve* these problems and issues? Adult society itself has not "solved" them—if it had, they would not be confronting us to-day. No, our task is to bring in review before the students year by year and in form adapted to their developing abilities, the evidence which is necessary for the consideration of all aspects of a given problem. An unpartisan, open-minded review of the evidence on both sides is what our school pupils need most of all.

This, then, is our procedure: first, find the *problems and issues* of modern social life; second, find the particular *questions* which have to be answered in order to consider all angles of the various problems; third, select typical "episodes" which illustrate the more important points to be made, collect the *facts*, in narrative, descriptive, graphic, pictorial or statistical form, that are needed to discuss the questions and the problems; fourth, to clarify and fix the essential matters, discover the basic *generalizations* that guide our thinking about society.

HOW THE PROBLEMS AND ISSUES ARE DISCOVERED AND UTILIZED

Who knows best what the insistent problems of the day are? The newspaper writers? Our municipal and national officials? Teachers of the social sciences? Makers of legislation?

No one group of these is as well equipped to state the issues as is a group of writers and publicists I have chosen to call "frontier thinkers." They are students of government, like Bryce, Beard, Zimmern, Garner, Lippmann, Merriam, Graham, Wallas, Laski, McDonald; specialists in the study of immigration, like Frances

Kellor, Burns, Park, Miller, Gavit, Jenks and Lauck, Fairchild. In what group of thinkers can one find more insight and mature judgment on world politics than from men like Gibbons, Bryce, J. A. Hobson, J. M. Keynes, Vanderlip, Moulton? In industrial and economic matters who can give us more help than students like Commons, Tawney, J. A. Hobson, Friday, Bruère, Webb? The answer to the query is: No where can you find better analysts of current affairs. These and a few score of others like them are our "frontier thinkers." They are out on the firing line of social analysis. From their matured statements we can secure both an analysis of the issues of social life and a prevision of what the problems are that the children of our generation will be wrestling with when they take their places as citizens in the "Great Society."

From the books of several score of these frontier thinkers we collected the statements of the problems and issues which make up the basis of our course. It seemed clear that the carefully matured printed statements of these specialists were more valuable than would be any statements that they might give us on question blanks. During the past three years more than one hundred and fifty books like those listed at the end of this chapter have been analyzed and the insistent problems of the day formulated from them. These books were selected in the following way. First, books in the social science field were listed from the *Book Review Digest* for the years 1915-1922; only those books were listed which were referred to as books of distinct merit, irrespective of economic or political faith. Second, the book reviews of six weekly and several monthly journals were read for three years. All books which the reviews characterized as important were purchased and analyzed for their statements of "problems." Third, this list was supplemented by a canvass of several thousand books on the shelves of the Columbia University library. The fourth lead—one of the most important ones—was to secure from each of some eighty specialists a list of ten books in his own field (industry, population, national government, world polities, and the like) which he would use to obtain statements of problems in his field. It was stressed that the statements must represent deep insight and balanced vision and that the books likewise should be chosen irrespective of economics or political faith.

From these four procedures a basic list of books was chosen. Representative books are given at the end of this chapter. This list is being added to constantly, because new books of the most important type are coming from the press. For example, our investigation would have missed much if it had not made use of Robinson's *Mind in the Making*, or Lippmann's *Public Opinion*, which have been published recently.

These books have all been carefully studied and statements of contemporary problems written and revised from them several times. The detailed contents of many of them have been tabulated to determine the questions which they take up in discussing the problems under consideration. This work has not been completed and the statistical results of the tabulations cannot be printed at the present time. The entire investigation will be reported as a detailed monograph at a later date.

A sample list of the problems is given next. The complete list cannot be published at the present time, for the statistical work on which it is based is also still in process. Each book is being critically analyzed by tabulating the space (in quarter pages) devoted to each of the questions which is discussed in the book. Thus, the book is thought of as employing three kinds of material: first, treatments of problems and issues (there may be one or a half dozen in number in a given book); second, the basic questions which must be answered in the consideration of the problems and issues (these vary in number from 100 to 300, depending on the book); third, the use of generalizations, or principles, which authorities agree upon and which should be understood by the rank and file of our people. We have compiled some 2000 of these from all the fields taken together.

Let us illustrate these different matters. First, I give our complete list of immigration problems. Remember that these problems have definitely determined the content of our pamphlets in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades on immigration. No topics are treated in the course itself unless they are called for by the questions which are discussed in the books which treat these problems and issues.

A LIST OF CONTEMPORARY PROBLEMS OF IMMIGRATION ON THE
BASIS OF WHICH COURSE MATERIAL IN THE SOCIAL
SCIENCES IS BEING CONSTRUCTED

(This list is typical of the total list of 300.)

- No. 1. Problem of determining on what bases to admit immigrants.
- No. 2. Problems of safeguarding the transportation of immigrants from their homes to America.
- No. 3. Problem of assimilating immigrants into American industry so that at the earliest possible moment they will be economically independent.
- No. 4. Problem of devising methods by which immigrants can be effectively distributed among the different regions of the United States.
- No. 5. Problem of improving conditions under which immigrants work.
- No. 6. Problem of raising the immigrant to the American standard of living.
- No. 7. Problem of utilizing public schools effectively in the education of adult immigrants and their children.
- No. 8. Problems of naturalizing the immigrant so that he can participate intelligently at the earliest possible moment in our political life.
- No. 9. Problem of getting the American business man and the immigrant to cooperate in buying and selling.
- No. 10. Problem of securing the cooperation of the foreign language press as an agency for assimilation.
- No. 11. Problem of utilizing the immigrant church and immigrant fraternal organization to assimilate the immigrant into American community and national life.
- No. 12. Problem of making immigrants law-abiding citizens by acquainting the immigrant with American customs and laws.
- No. 13. Problem of arousing the American people to formulate a constructive immigration program.

The table pages 264-265 illustrates the way in which the discussion of problems and questions is tabulated from the nine immigration books. Only one topic is chosen for an illustration: "The Distribution of Immigrants by Regions." Thirteen questions were found to be discussed by one or more of the books. This particular topic is a good example of the fact that, while some questions are discussed by all of the leading authorities in a field, others are treated by only one or a few.

The thirteen immigration problems with their 450 subordinate questions appear on twenty-five large tables. The data serve two important purposes: first, they provide a tabulation of the facts, principles, and crucial questions of a given field as treated by the

frontier thinkers in that field; second, the material provides an analytical bibliography which is invaluable in preparing readings for school pupils. By studying these charts we have been under little doubt as to which problems, topics, and questions should be discussed. In deciding which ones to include in the course we are swayed by two considerations; first, the extent to which authorities agree the questions are urgent; second, the way in which they discuss the questions. It is sometimes true, of course, that a question is important and must be included in the curriculum, even though it is not treated by even a majority of the specialists. This does not happen often, however.

Is there not in this method the suggestion of a more objective method of determining what history to teach our pupils? This procedure suggests that we should teach (as the minimal essentials course) only that historical background of each institution or mode of living that is necessary to obtain a clear acquaintance with, and appreciation of, that mode of living and of the problems and issues of the present day. We are now experimenting with this criterion by tabulating the history which students of present-day problems use in discussing those problems. For example, we find that students of immigration very generally agree on the importance of certain movements and developments in immigration. Experts in world affairs very commonly employ much the same historical explanation of these affairs. Our endeavor should be to obtain an objective basis for the history which we select for school children—especially since we have the time to tell only a small part of the story. Our tentative procedure is a step in this direction.

Before leaving this topic, it should be emphasized that the tabulation of the contents of these frontier books does *not* provide us with a criterion for deciding *how much* time or attention to give to any one problem, topic, or question. Such decisions can be made only by trying a number of allotments with public-school children and by choosing the best one. That is a teaching problem, an experimental matter, not at all a question of whether or not the points under consideration shall be included in the curriculum.

To illustrate the scope of our whole scheme I give in conclusion the major topics under which the problems are grouped and one

or two examples of problems in each group. The analysis of the whole field is a gigantic task and is only partly completed. The complete statistical findings for all the problems, questions, and generalizations will be reported in a monograph at a later date.

A SHORT LIST OF CONTEMPORARY PROBLEMS

(A complete list like these determines the content of the course in the Social Sciences. This partial list is included only to illustrate the more complete one.)

- A. Problems of Immigration. (The entire list has been given.)
- B. Problems which deal with Natural Resources.
 - Examples: 1. How can we provide for the wide-spread ownership and development of farm land and homes?
 - 2. Problem of making available adequate rural credits.
- C. Problems of Industry and Business.
 - Examples: 1. Problems of securing the fullest cooperation between labor and capital.
 - 2. Problem of providing continuous employment for all.
 - 3. Problem of utilizing government control to secure efficient and fair administration of concentrated forms of industry and business.
 - 4. Problem of determining what shall constitute a fair price.
- D. Problems Involved in Developing and Maintaining an Adequate and Efficient Transportation System in America.
 - Example: 1. Problem of correlating our rail, water, and motorized transportation.
- E. Problems of the American City.
 - Example: 1. Problem of how to give to community life, both urban and rural, the physical situation and the intimate neighborhood relations which are typical of the American suburban community.
- F. Problems of Education and the Formation of Intelligent Public Opinion.
 - Examples: 1. Problem of adult education in citizenship.
 - 2. Problem of adult education by the dissemination through the press of the essential facts concerning contemporary economic, social, and political matters.
- G. Miscellaneous Social Problems.
 - Example: 1. Problem of making the impoverished economically independent.
- H. Problems of Government in the American Democracy.
 - Examples: 1. Problem of determining what the government should do—the services it should render.

2. Problem of insuring that a particular form of government is effective; *e.g.*, how secure simple, direct, responsible government in a nation of large territory?

J. Problems of World Affairs.

- Examples:
1. Problem of developing a science of world politics, "so that wastes and war can be eliminated and the common interests of mankind brought under common control."
 2. Problem of civilizing backward peoples and of developing undeveloped lands.

BOOKS WHICH ARE TYPICAL OF THOSE UPON WHICH STATEMENTS OF CONTEMPORARY PROBLEMS AND ISSUES HAVE BEEN BASED

A. Problems of Immigration.

1. Jenks, J. W., and Lauck, J.: *The Immigration Problem*. Funk & Wagnalls Company, New York City.
 2. Kellor, Frances: *Immigration and The Future*. G. H. Doran Co., New York City.
 3. The Americanization Studies: Allen T. Burns, Editor. Harper & Brothers, New York City.
- Twelve important books on Immigration and Americanization.

B. Problems which deal with Natural Resources.

1. Mead, E.: *Helping Men Own Farms*. Macmillan.
2. Van Hise, C. R.: *Conservation of Natural Resources*. Macmillan.

C. Problems of Industry and Business.

1. Cole, G. D. H.: *Chaos and Order in Industry*. Methuen, London, England.
2. Federated American Engineering Societies: *Waste in Industry*. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York City.
3. Gleason, Arthur: *What the Workers Want*. Harcourt Brace, New York City.
4. Hobson, J. A.: *Evolution of Modern Capitalism*. Scribners, New York City.
5. Marshall, L. C.: *Readings in Industrial Society*. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois.
6. Tawney, R. H.: *The Acquisitive Society*. Harcourt Brace, New York City.
7. Veblen, T.: *Theory of Business Enterprise*. Scribners, New York City.
8. Zimmern, A.: *Nationality and Government*. McBride, New York City.

D. Problems Involved in Developing and Maintaining an Adequate and Efficient Transportation System in America.

1. Johnson, E. B., and Van Metrie, T. W.: *Principles of Transportation*. Appletons, New York City.

- E. Problems of the American City.
 - 1. Fosdick, Raymond: *American Police Systems*.
 - 2. Howe, F. C.: *The Modern City and Its Problems*. Scribners, New York City.
 - 3. Whitaker, C. H.: *The Joke about Housing*. Marshall, Jones, Boston.
 - 4. Wood, Edith: *Housing of the Unskilled Wage Earner*. Macmillan.
- F. Problems of Education and the Formation of Intelligent Public Opinion.
 - 1. Lippmann, W.: *Public Opinion*. Harcourt Brace, New York City.
 - 2. Robinson, J. H.: *Mind in the Making*. Harper's.
 - 3. Wallas, G.: *The Great Society*. Macmillan.
- H. Problems of Government in the American Democracy.
 - 1. Beard, C. A.: *American Government and Politics*, Macmillan.
 - 2. Bryce, James: *Modern Democracies*, 2 vols. Macmillan.
 - 3. Garner, J. W.: *Introduction to Political Science*. American Book Company, New York City.
 - 4. Lippmann, W.: *Preface to Politics*. Henry Holt, New York City.
 - 5. Merriam, C. E.: *American Political Ideas*. Macmillan.
 - 6. Wallas, G.: *Human Nature in Politics*. Constable & Co., London.
- J. Problems of World Affairs.
 - 1. Bass and Moulton: *America and the Balance Sheet of Europe*. Ronald Press, New York City.
 - 2. Bryce, James: *International Relations*. Macmillan.
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CHAPTER XVI

CURRICULUM-MAKING AS APPLIED TO THE ECONOMIC ASPECTS OF LIFE

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It is to be expected that a population which enjoys at least eight years of compulsory education should show a little intelligence in the daily habits of living. It is the opinion of the writer after considerable study that the schools of our nation do not teach our population to live effectively and that a revision of the curriculum is one of the important means of improving this condition. It is the purpose of this paper to suggest a method of revising the curriculum in so far as it deals with some of the economic aspects of life.

THE METHOD OF CURRICULUM MAKING

There are five factors which condition the curriculum:

1. The fundamental elements of effective social life
2. The nature of the learner
3. The laws of learning
4. The nature of the teacher
5. The attitude, resources, and limitations of the community

Theoretically, then, the problem of curriculum making is to select and organize ingeniously each unit of school activity to meet the demands of these five factors. Obviously, a program of school activities can only be designed after a great amount of thorough research, careful revision, and scientific organization.

The term "school activities" is used here in place of "school studies" or "school subjects" because the latter approach to the revision of the curriculum for effective living brings the curriculum-maker to an *impasse* which forces him back to an analysis of life activities. One discovers very soon that the habits of living of

our people are not changed very much by the classroom study of history, geography, arithmetic, etc.

The school activities must be based upon a study of the fundamental needs of life; they must conform to the nature of the learner; they must be organized to obtain the best advantages of the laws of the learning process; they must be selected and organized on the assumption that they are to be administered by a teacher; and they must be adapted to the educational resources and limitations of the community.

Curriculum Making a Cooperative Task

The American universities have developed experts in the departments which are concerned with these five factors who are competent, cooperatively, to assemble and organize a scientific curriculum. There are now in the field a number of specialists who are skilled in the scientific determination of curriculum objectives and who have made considerable headway in furnishing the sociological basis of the school activities. The psychologists and directors of experimental schools have made progress in discovering the nature of the child as it relates to school life. The psychologists, too, have refined the laws of the learning process and have begun to organize school activities scientifically for effective learning. Administrators are studying the equipment of the teacher and the conditions of the community which affect the educational process. These three groups of specialists, the educational sociologists, the psychologists, and the administrators, are prepared to formulate a curriculum in accordance with one or more of the fundamental demands of the educational process.

In fact, these three groups of specialists are now engaged in the very task of re-making curricula. Each group, however, is doing this independently, employing its specially developed procedure and making its own peculiar emphasis. Consequently, each group is producing textbooks and courses of study perfect only in that phase in which its members are specialists.

The psychologists have written textbooks which, while remarkable achievements in the organization of content for maximal learning, have failed to meet the very fundamental demands of social

life. Another group has made noteworthy quantitative studies of social needs, has selected the content with scientific care, but it has neglected to organize the content according to the best discoveries of the psychologist, the experimental school, and the administrator. Those in charge of experimental schools have been very faithful in adapting the curriculum to the child's true nature, but they have failed to take into account the fundamental needs of life as ascertained by the sociologist, and also to organize the school activities for maximal learning. It is obvious that what we need at this point is the pooling of the gifts of these experts in the common task of curriculum making.

The reconstruction of the curriculum should be the result of the cooperative effort of the experts in the several departments of educational study which affect the curriculum. The first selection of the content of the school activities should be made by those who have developed the special technique of ascertaining the fundamental needs of society. Having finished their work, they should pass their data on to the expert on the nature of the child whose responsibility it will be to make a further selection and a rough organization of the material in accordance with his knowledge. These roughly selected and organized data should in turn be passed on to the expert on the learning process whose duty it will be to organize the content for most effective learning. The tentative curriculum should then go to the administrator who will make the adaptations which conform to the nature of the teacher and to the resources and limitations of the community. After the material has been the rounds, the experts should assemble in conference with the original and revised material before them for the purpose of balancing the fundamental demands in an attempt to integrate the content in accordance with the five important educational factors. It is conceivable that one genius can embody the five-fold skill required for scientific curriculum-making, but it is prudent to call on specialists until such a genius can be discovered.

The First Step in Curriculum Making Illustrated With Respect to Economic Life

The first step in curriculum making will be illustrated with respect to that portion of the curriculum which has to do with

the economic aspects of life. We are to ascertain the sociological basis of the school activities which prepare the individual to live economic life effectively. The body of recommendations which will be made will be called *objectives*, because they are habits, skills, knowledge, and attitudes which should be achieved by educational activity.

To ascertain educational objectives of the economic life of the people of our nation it is necessary, first, to know what their present economic habits actually are. Second, we must compare these habits with standards of good living which have scientific support, such as the daily food requirement, or with standards which are widely accepted although they have not yet been scientifically demonstrated, such as the housing standard worked out by our government during the war. Third, we must refer the economic habits of our people to the social axioms which have universal acceptance in our country and which derive their sanction from the very nature of our government and institutions. This procedure will issue in conclusions recommending that certain of our habits are utterly bad and should be discontinued; that others are poor and should be improved; and that there are some good habits thus far neglected which should be developed. These conclusions are the ends, or objectives, of economic life to be attained by the educational process.

This task derives much of its value from the present voluminous output of facts and figures concerning the economic status of the country. During the war it was necessary to reorganize industries and to readjust prices and standards of wages and production. To do this a great number of studies were made by government agencies, war boards, chambers of commerce, and labor organizations. Consequently, scores of significant reports are now available. Furthermore, these reports have stimulated business men and trade unions to maintain research departments. Independent research bureaus sensing the demand for economic information have also come into existence. These agencies will furnish material for continuous revision of the curriculum in accordance with the new discoveries of our present social and economic needs. Such a situation argues strongly for the abandon-

ment of the old introspective method of assembling courses of study and curricula, and for the introduction of a new scientific approach to the task of curriculum-making.

This task can be greatly facilitated by the establishment of an information service in the departments of education of the nation, state, and city. The data furnished by the service should be organized and distributed in several sections corresponding to the great divisions of the curriculum. The service should have two distinct purposes. First, it should contain abstracts of the most important literature in each of the curriculum subdivisions. It should contain facts and figures which will help to keep school content up to date. Second, the information gathered by experts in the central education department should form the basis for the regular, periodic revision of the curriculum by experts in the government departments as well as in the local districts and schools. It is indeed appropriate that the state should begin the important movement of replacing the superintendent, principal or teacher, to whom curriculum making is a secondary function, by a trained body of curriculum experts.

An Illustration of the Procedure Followed in Gathering Evidence

The method of gathering evidence to determine what the schools ought to teach about household materials will be discussed here briefly to illustrate the nature of the evidence needed and the method of using it in the investigation. The data collected in the first general survey of economic life were organized to help discover what information concerning household materials was to be sought. It appeared that it would be necessary to find out exactly what the important household articles were, whether they derived their importance from their place in the budget or from their effect on health and comfort. It was essential to know what is wrong with the habits of selection and purchase of household articles, whether the people of our nation select inferior goods, whether they select unnecessarily expensive goods, or whether there is ignorance as to the relative value of household commodities. It was helpful to ascertain the common trade practice connected

with the sale of household goods, whether these practices mislead the purchaser and whether information concerning these practices will help the consumer to purchase household articles more intelligently. The raw materials that enter into the manufacture of these articles should be studied because they throw light on the quality of goods consumed by the American people. A study of the forms, units, and styles in which household materials are marketed should be made because it reveals facts which might be helpful to the consumer. It will be necessary to discover a vocabulary which would help the householder in the purchase and use of goods. The relative cost of materials should be studied to discover whether this information would aid the consumer in making economical purchases. In a word, it is necessary to gather such data as will show what will make the consumer more intelligent, efficient, and economical in the selection and purchase of household materials.

The next problem was to get hold of the data. The census report of manufactures by commodities, together with export and import figures furnished data giving the most important articles used in the household, according to amount of expenditure. This initial selection of household materials was checked up by the result of a nation-wide survey of 10,000 families undertaken by the United States Department of Labor, giving the relative expenditure for the important household articles.

Each commodity was then considered separately. The Census report gave indisputable figures concerning the raw materials which entered into the manufacture of each commodity. The relative value of these raw materials was checked up in technical books and articles dealing with the industry under consideration. It was, therefore, possible to ascertain whether the country as a whole was consuming the expensive or inexpensive articles, the durable or non-durable, the good or the bad. The Census report also furnished a list of the products of each industry and the extent of consumption of each product. Thus it was possible to ascertain in terms of products such as carpets, lamps, paper, wood, metals, etc., exactly what the nation consumes.

When the basic material had been collected, it was then necessary to read all the available literature that pertained to the present habits of purchase and use of commodities as well as to proposals for the improvement of habits of purchase and use. Surveys and investigations of practices in the home were used to get figures describing the actual household conditions. Data were sought giving the results of experiments in the use of the more important household articles, as well as other helpful, common, simple, technical information concerning household goods with which technical men are very familiar but about which the general population is ignorant.

Bibliographies, especially those prepared by the Library of Congress, are available on many industrial subjects and these were always used. The *Industrial Arts Index* is a comprehensive compilation of references on industrial subjects which was carefully consulted for every commodity discussed. For certain general statements and figures concerning the industries, *Crane's Market Data Book and Directory* was always consulted and often gave some good leads. Without it the many trade journals which it lists could not have been consulted in connection with the study of every commodity. The Tariff Information Surveys which were prepared by the United States Tariff Commission, undoubtedly to get intelligent thinking concerning tariff revision, are of great value to the consumer and to the student. In this series of pamphlets is contained a description of the industry, the raw materials, the products, trade practices, extent of production, exports, and imports, and other related material for every important commodity consumed in this country. A similar series of pamphlets limited to 57 important commodities was prepared by the War Industries Board under the direction of W. C. Mitchell, of Columbia University. These were used parallel with the census figures and literature describing raw materials, products, and processes.

For many commodities there are studies and pamphlets prepared by the several federal departments. Among these, the Farmers' Bulletins were most frequently used. The United States Bureau of Standards has published many circulars and technical papers which are exceedingly practical and illuminating and should

be very widely used by the public. Circular 55, "Measurements for the Household," and Circular 70, "Materials for the Household," were especially helpful.

Curriculum Objectives Concerning Food Consumption

The first illustration of the method proposed here will be concerned with food consumption. The available evidence as to the food habits of our nation is of two kinds. The first is the statistical data furnished by the federal departments, chief of which is the Census Bureau, giving gross and per capita figures of food production in terms of quantity and money value for the entire nation. The second is the data reported in food studies of communities made in some cases to ascertain the standard of living of a community and in others to ascertain the habits of consumption in general or with respect to special food commodities, such as milk. All the evidence of the first type for the years from 1911 to 1918 has been tabulated and converted into terms of the food elements by Raymond Pearl, in a noteworthy volume entitled *The Nation's Food*. The evidence of the second type used as a basis for our curriculum recommendations concerning food consists of a dozen or more investigations of dietary habits covering a large variety of communities and nationalities. The data showing what foods the people of our nation actually consume were compared with figures contained in the most reliable standards of food consumption. This comparison showed that our curriculum should include the development of such habits, knowledge, and attitudes as will increase the consumption of green vegetables, fruits, and raw milk and decrease the consumption of meats.

The data showed that over nine-tenths of the total nutritional intake of our population consists of beef, pork, the grains, dairy products, sugar, potatoes, vegetable oils, poultry, and eggs. The conclusion from these data is, clearly, that importance in the selection, purchase, preparation, and storing of foods should be given to the grains, meats, dairy products, vegetables, sugars, and eggs, in accordance with the degree to which they supply the food wants of the nation.

A study of the income of the people of the United States in relation to the cost of food showed that more than half of the population of our nation is in great difficulty of extracting the daily food requirement. In spite of this, the data showed conclusive evidence of money waste in the selection of foods for the American dietary. The fats and meats which are relatively high in cost were consumed in excess of the standard, while the legumes and potatoes which are relatively low in cost were underconsumed. The conclusion here, for the curriculum-maker, is to introduce such content as will develop the habit of purchasing the less expensive protein, fuel, and ash foods.

An Illustration Concerning Rent and Housing

The next illustration of the method proposed here will be concerned with rent. Fifty-four and four-tenths percent of the families of the nation pay rent. It is important that these families should know something about the factors that determine rent and the value of the land upon which they live. Rent is the money problem applied to shelter, as price is the money problem applied to food. The empty cry of profiteering, no matter how justified, is a very feeble weapon in the hands of the tenant. If the tenant is to have any effect upon rent he must have knowledge of facts and figures concerning the cost of building materials, the cost of labor, interest rates, and taxes. This information is available in public documents. Labor unions have been able to obtain fair wages because their leaders ceased to make vague sentimental pleas and have developed the technique of using documentary evidence to define in detail the cost of living and the distribution of income of production. W. F. Ogburn¹ gathered data giving the house rents paid by families in 92 cities. The figures thus obtained were compared with the standard rental proposed in several reliable studies. It appeared that a large proportion of the families of the nation could not afford to pay the rent necessary to live in a standard home. By comparing the incomes of the families which could not pay the standard rental with a table of distribution of incomes among the families of the United States prepared by W.

¹*United States Monthly Labor Review*, Sept. 1919, p. 30.

I. King, it was discovered that 25 percent of the population of the country must perform live in homes which are below the standard. Obviously, this is an economic and political problem about which sound thinking can be secured only if the schools of our nation will encourage fair and honest consideration of the conditions and remedies which affect rent.

The low average rent found by W. F. Ogburn and in the numerous surveys which were studied, showed, further, that it is impossible for many families to live in homes with sanitary requirements which we have come to associate with decent living. His study showed that, while the difference in rent between a 4-room and a 5-room apartment was \$.79, the difference in rent between an apartment with a bath and an apartment without a bath was \$5.13. It is apparent that the ability to pay rent bears a relation to the sanitary equipment of a home. Since it is indispensable that people shall keep their bodies and their homes clean, it is necessary in certain localities to train the people to improvise certain sanitary equipment, such as water heaters and portable bath tubs, instead of exhorting them to keep clean and to take a daily bath.

Concerning the selection of a home, it was found that certain important factors of which the average consumer is generally ignorant, have a great deal to do with a desirable home. For example, it was found that on one square block the value of the most expensive lot was five times the value of the cheapest lot. On the other hand, the value of the house on the more expensive lot was only twice the value of the house on the cheaper lot. Obviously, the tenant in the house situated on the more expensive lot was paying for location out of reasonable proportion. Such a mistake could be avoided by a tenant who established the habit of ascertaining the facts concerning the value of land and the value of the house on the land in the public documents of any community.

An Illustration Concerning the Fuel Problem

Certain habits concerning preservation have penetrated the thinking of the people of our nation, and there is evidence that these habits of mind have modified the conduct of our people. The preservation of the race, of the nation, of literature, of our national

parks, and the like, have gained acceptance in our institutional and governmental life. The needs concerned with fuel preservation have only begun to stir the thinking of our people, much less their inclination *to do* something about it.

Chester G. Gilbert and Joseph E. Pogue, of the United States National Museum, say that "this country has within its reach the means for effecting a saving in the matter of its energy supply of well over a billion dollars a year."² Most of the waste of energy considered here may be charged to industry, but it is reasonable to assume that industry will take steps to eliminate waste sooner than the body of domestic consumers. Indeed, all research and scientific skill thus far, in America, has been applied to the conservation of fuel in industry.

There is an enormous waste of food in this country but the waste of fuel is comparatively much greater. Concerning the waste of coal, D. M. Meyers, who was connected with the United States Fuel Administration, writes: "If all the well known and well tried methods of fuel conservation were put into effect throughout the United States, the resultant saving would amount to 75 to 100 million tons per year in coal alone," which amounts to 450 million dollars in money value.³ The coal supply of our nation is not inexhaustible. The most conservative estimate puts the available reserves of coal at 5,500 times the present annual consumption.⁴ Anthracite coal at the present rate of consumption will be exhausted in one hundred years.

The recovery of natural gas, which is more than 70 percent of all gases consumed, is comparatively small. In connection with the production of oil there has been little effort to conserve the gas extracted. In the gas fields, proper, the small leaseholds and competing wells cause hasty extraction. It is important to conserve natural gas, because it costs only one-third as much as artificial gas and is twice as good.⁵ When the gas reaches the

²C. G. Gilbert and Joseph E. Pogue, "The Energy Resources of the United States: A Field of Reconstruction," 1919. *Smithsonian Institution, Bulletin 102*, Vol. I, p. 1.

³Steam, July 1920, p. 3.

⁴Ernest Owen, "Energy resources of the world and their utilization," *Chemical Age*, July 1921, p. 284.

⁵Gilbert and Pogue; *Energy Resources of the United States*, pp. 50f.

2,400,000 consumers, they use only 20 percent of the amount received. The rest is wasted.

The comfort of all the rural homes and of many city homes is dependent upon petroleum. The operation of the machines in industry and of automobiles, of which there are one to every twelve inhabitants of our country, is also dependent upon petroleum. A committee of the American Association of Petroleum Geologists and the United States Geological Survey have estimated that nine billion barrels of oil recoverable by methods now in use remained in the ground in this country on January 1, 1922. This quantity will satisfy the present requirements of the United States for only twenty years.⁶ Less than 25 percent of the petroleum underground reaches the pipe line. If the losses involved in improper and wasteful methods of utilization are subtracted, the recovery factor becomes perhaps as low as 10 percent.⁷ Nearly 30 percent of the heat of the original gasoline is lost thru the exhaust of automobiles. A careful adjustment of carburetors would save about 600,000,000 gallons of gasoline per year. The Bureau of Mines estimated that 25 percent of the fuel oil burned in the United States, 40 million barrels, could have been saved by careful operation of boiler plants.⁸

An Illustration Concerning Household Materials

The next illustration will deal with a phase of furniture consumption. Data collected by the American Hardwood Manufacturer's Association from 202 manufacturers of furniture,⁹ giving the consumption of hardwood in the furniture industry in 1920, show that, of all woods used by furniture manufacturers, mahogany comprises a little over one percent and walnut a little over two percent. An investigation of trade practices reveals the fact that birch can be finished like mahogany and that gum wood is manufactured to appear like walnut. Our data show that whereas mahogany and walnut are used in about 3 percent of the

⁶Mimeographed Report, U. S. Geological Survey.

⁷Gilbert and Pogue, *Energy Resources of the United States*, p. 69.

⁸Walter U. Polakov: "Oil," *New Republic*, June 14, 1922.

⁹Crane's *Market Data Book and Directory*, 1921, p. 193.

furniture, birch and gum, which can be made to appear like the former, are used in 36 percent of all the furniture. It is therefore obvious that it is important to be able to distinguish birch from mahogany and gum wood from walnut.

There are other trade practices, the ignorance of which is a great hindrance to proper selection and purchase of furniture. For example, the practice of putting a veneer of expensive wood over a foundation of durable but less expensive wood has its advantages, but this should be known by the purchaser to help him to determine a fair price. The common practice of printing the grain of quartered oak on other woods can be very deceiving, particularly to the workingman, unless he learns to distinguish the print from the genuine quartered oak.

In order to compare the prices paid for furniture by about 6,000 families in 36 northern cities reported in the survey of the United States Department of Labor¹⁰ with prices of medium price furniture during the same year, the writer went through the files of the New York *Globe* for August, 1918. The month of August was selected because it is the period of annual furniture sales, and prices could be found in abundance. Incidentally, a tabulation of the names of furniture woods mentioned in the advertisements was made. This table is an interesting reflection of dealers' practices and popular ignorance about furniture. It has been shown that mahogany and walnut are used in about 3 percent of the furniture and birch and gum are used in 36 percent of the furniture. We should expect, therefore, that some similar proportion should appear in advertisements. The facts, however, are startling. "Mahogany" is advertised 149 times; "walnut" is advertised 69 times; "birch" is mentioned twice, with "mahogany finish" tacked on to it; and "gum wood" is mentioned three times, and that only with "American walnut finish" after it. Only in a few cases was it clear whether the furniture advertised as "mahogany" meant solid mahogany, mahogany veneer, or mahogany finish on birch wood. The term "mahogany finish" was mentioned thirteen times. It seems plain from these advertisements that they were designed deliberately to mislead the purchaser or to exploit his

¹⁰United States Monthly Labor Review, January, 1920, p. 31.

ignorance of furniture woods. If there is any justification at all for these doubtful practices by furniture dealers, and one doubts if there is, it is that they are forced into them by the purchaser, whose knowledge of furniture woods consists of a few names. How long this ignorance of expensive and significant commodities shall continue depends upon the present curriculum-maker.

It was possible to ascertain the quality of the furniture which the great mass of people were in the habit of buying. The chief species of wood used in American furniture manufacture were classified as to durability, according to data furnished by the United States Bureau of Standards.¹¹ It was found that 9 percent of the wood used in furniture which was commonly bought was very durable, 35 percent was durable, 18 percent was intermediate, and 38 percent was non-durable. That is, on the basis of figures collected from 202 manufacturers, 54 percent of the wood which enters into the furniture used by the American people is not durable. It is clear that the quality of furniture bought by American people is too poor to be economical in the long run. For the curriculum-maker this fact indicates that the budgetary habits of the people of our nation must be readjusted, with a view to improving this condition.

An Illustration Concerning Leather Goods

The next illustration concerns the purchase of leather goods. The demand for leather is greater than the domestic supply, and the price of leather goods is often above the means of our population which is a wage earning population. Consequently, there is a market for a durable material having a cloth base to be used in the manufacture of bags and upholstery. The problem for the consumer, therefore, is not to taboo coated cloth, but to avoid being misled as to the nature of the article and its price. The person of limited means should know when it becomes impossible to purchase leather and should then proceed to buy the most durable and attractive coated cloth.

There is a thriving industry of imitation leather goods yielding products to the value of \$50,000,000 annually. A leading and

¹¹United States Bureau of Standards, Circular No. 70, p. 50.

apparently reliable concern which sells *leather-cloth* states that nine-tenths of all "leather-covered" furniture is upholstered with leather-cloth and that most automobile makers use it. It is also used extensively in trunks, cases, and bags. The industry has succeeded in reproducing the grains of alligator, pig skin, box calf, morocco, and seal with sufficient similarity to deceive the average person. Imitation leather is chiefly a cloth base with one or more coatings or pyroxilin, commonly known as celluloid, upon which is pressed a leather grain. Some of these leather fabrics are made of paper and rubber. The trade names under which they are sold when the retailer does not wish to mislead the purchaser are mule-skin, pyroxilin leather, leatheroid, fabrikoid and leatherine. It is obvious, however, that even these names have a tendency to mislead the purchaser.

Phonographs and the Curriculum

The next two illustrations are concerned with products of comparatively recent origin. The first will deal with the phonograph and the second with the automobile.

There are six million phonographs abroad in the homes of the United States. Approximately every fourth home has a phonograph and the rate of increase of the purchase of phonographs as shown by census figures¹² indicates a much wider distribution of phonographs in the next few years.

It is obvious that the consumer should have some knowledge to guide him in the purchase and proper use of the phonograph. Although there are more than 150 phonograph manufacturers, only a few machines are well known and these are the ones which are most widely advertised. The inquiry made by the Bureau of Research and Information of the National Retail Dry Goods Association from which the data presented here are taken shows that customers buy advertised products only. They are guided by the paid publicity written for the manufacturers.

In 20 stores in the State of Maryland, 95 percent of the machines sold were Victors. In 19 stores in Ohio five-eighths of the

¹²Confidential Report, Operation of Phonograph Departments in Department Stores, Bureau of Research and Information, National Dry Goods Association, p. 1.

phonographs sold were Edisons and three-eighths were Columbias. In the other states the situation as reported in the study was the same. One can picture the purchasers in a locality holding to a product, undoubtedly well advertised, with almost superstitious tenacity. Thus communities have been kept in prolonged darkness concerning the merits of competing instruments. The most recent machine which has been widely advertised is the Edison machine. This machine is a departure from the common types in fundamental parts, yet the prospective purchaser has very little background for a comparison or for an accurate understanding of the comparative importance of the sales arguments of dealers whom he may canvass. In New York City in spite of the variety of machines advertised it is quite common to hear any type of phonograph called a "Victrola," which is the trade name of one very popular instrument. This is an example of ignorance induced by commercial propaganda and abetted by neglected economic education.

The Automobile and the Curriculum

The illustration concerning the automobile is included here not so much because of its vital importance to the average person, but because it illustrates markedly the thesis which is here supported. No one will dispute that the automobile occupies a negligible place in our modern elementary curriculum. Curriculum-makers in all probability have made wild guesses as to the extent of the use of the automobile, its economic importance, its relation to the great mass of people. As a result they have allowed their speculations to relegate automobiles to the curricular scrap heap. Possibly the curriculum-makers have not stirred since the last census taking. They are timidously awaiting the next decennial renovation of the course of study, but it is doubtful whether they will take the trouble to make the painful research necessary to discover and interpret existent modes of living as a basis for curriculum change. However, let us proceed with the facts.

The value of the products of the automobile industry, amounting to over three billion dollars, is second in magnitude. In 1921, 10,449,785 passenger cars and motor trucks were registered. Leonard P. Ayres has worked out the following table showing the num-

ber of people per car in use each year. It gives the very conservative figure of one car to every twelve persons in 1920.¹³

People per Car in Use in the United States Each Year			
Year.	No. of People per Car.	Year.	No. of People per Car.
1912.....	114	1917.....	20
1913.....	78	1918.....	18
1914.....	57	1919.....	15
1915.....	46	1920.....	12
1916.....	30		

Analysing these figures further, Ayres concludes that not far from half the white American families already have cars which includes a large number who can barely afford to purchase and run their cars. Nearly half of all the motor vehicles in use are Fords. This indicates that the automobile bears a close relation to a great mass of families of medium income. Sixty-two percent of the farmers have cars, according to a survey of 10,000 rural families made by the Department of Agriculture. The figures showing the expansion of automobile ownership indicate that we may expect a wider use of automobiles, since, as Ayres points out, the point of saturation has not yet been reached.

In certain sections of the United States the introduction of the automobile into the curriculum would be premature, but in the Pacific States, the West North Central States, the Mountain States, and the East North Central States, where the number of people per car is 7, 8, 9, and 10 respectively, it would be short-sighted to fail to offer some training in the purchase, use, and care of an automobile.

CONCLUSION

I have tried to indicate in this paper that we need to use quantitative evidence as a basis for curriculum revision and have pointed out that such evidence is especially available at this time. I have attempted, briefly, to illustrate a method of curriculum revision requiring the cooperation of several experts. I have indicated that the initial data for the revision of the curriculum are to be col-

¹³Leonard P. Ayres. *Automobile Industry and Its Future*, 32 pages.

lected by the expert who, for want of a better name, was called the "educational sociologist." I then proceeded to illustrate how the educational sociologist should collect his data with respect to the economic aspects of life. Several examples giving both evidence and objectives arising from this evidence were presented concerning food consumption, rent, the fuel problem, furniture consumption, leather goods, the phonograph, and the automobile. In a larger work I hope to present a body of recommendations for the revision of the curriculum which will help our people to perform effectively the economic duties of life.

SECTION IV. CRITIQUE OF METHODS AND RESULTS OF REORGANIZATION

CHAPTER XVII

A CRITICAL APPRAISEMENT OF PROPOSED REORGANIZATIONS

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The time between my receipt of the foregoing articles and the necessary printing of the *Yearbook* has been so short that my contribution is in serious danger of being "short" in many respects. At the best it is a record of first impressions received from a hasty reading of the numerous manuscripts.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PROBLEM

Many years ago I called on the Minister of Education in Berne, Switzerland, to inquire what problems in the elementary field of instruction were then under special consideration. The First Assistant to whom I was assigned, after making sure of my question, replied without apparent embarrassment that there weren't any. And my later visits to some of the Swiss Schools seemed to justify his statement.

At that time—some thirty-five years ago—it might have been difficult for most of our own school superintendents to have given a very different reply to that inquiry. But there is no question about the matter now. There is a large number of problems that our teachers are consciously attacking, among which the Reorganization of the Curriculum is possibly the most prominent and the most vital.

AGES OF PERSONS FOR WHOM CURRICULA ARE CONSIDERED IN THIS YEARBOOK

The entire range of ages for which curricula are considered in these articles extends through all the years from the primary

into college. Professor Horn proposes a course in history for the first six grades, and Professor Coss a college course. The other writers cover intervening ages; but the years on which attention most fully centers are those of the junior high school.

THE SUBJECTS OR STUDIES TREATED

Although the title of the *Yearbook* is "The Social Studies in the Elementary and Secondary School," the subjects considered go considerably beyond history, geography and civics. Not only do sociology and economics receive much attention, but English is extensively discussed by Mr. Hill, and the particular problems in Mr. Harap's article are Food Consumption, Rent and Housing, Fuel, Household Materials, Leather Goods, and Phonographs. After reading these latter articles one cannot help but wonder why the phrase "Social Studies" should tend to be largely confined to the three subjects named. Why should not any subject that leads the student directly into social problems be regarded as a social study? For instance, might not physical education and household arts be just as worthy of that title as history and geography?

THE PRINCIPAL PHASE OF CURRICULUM-MAKING CONSIDERED

No fewer than six or eight courses of study—whole or partial courses—are contained in these articles. But all of them are offered very tentatively, and usually as illustrations of what a given method of procedure in curriculum-making has brought about. The chief interest of the writers at the present time is in the method to be followed in selecting subject matter, rather than in the subject matter itself.

This interest in the method of procedure marks one of our greatest advances in education in recent years. For generations we have been making curricula; and it has been so easy a task that anyone could attempt it, and anyone has. Now at last we are inquiring how it ought to be done.

We have been slow; but people have always been slow in their appreciation of method. The Scientific Method was a very late discovery in the history of the race. And even now the graduate student in the university, often occupying sixteen to eighteen years

in study, spends his final year, if he is a candidate for a Ph.D., in finding out the best method of studying some particular problem—in short, in finding out how to study. Presumably the one who is not a candidate for this degree does not need such knowledge. The great majority of college graduates have never been given even a fragmentary course in the method of studying anything. We may congratulate ourselves, therefore, that the method of curriculum-making is the principal question in this *Yearbook*.

POINTS OF GENERAL AGREEMENT

Such a variety of matters is discussed in these papers that many of them cannot receive attention in this brief appraisal. Indeed, owing to my limit in space and time, I have left one or two of the chapters almost entirely out of consideration.

First of all, it is striking to what extent practically all the writers are in agreement on very vital matters.

1. *The revolt against encyclopedic education.* One of these matters concerns encyclopedic education. Comenius was ambitious to teach all men all things. As knowledge has increased, any hope of really attaining such a goal has decreased; yet the ambition has persisted ever since his day, as most of our courses of study and textbooks of the present day suggest. Broad information, learning, scholarship has been the accepted aim of instruction in practice down to very recent years.

These writers are together in declaring citizenship to be the aim. According to them, only such facts should be taught as have a reasonably evident relation to conduct. That means the rejection of large sections of studies that have generally been taught and the introduction of new sections in their place. It does not mean the repudiation of scholarship; indeed, in their estimation children are likely to acquire more and deeper knowledge through the change. But it does mean the subordination of scholarship to the higher and more needed end, citizenship. Evidently these writers are not afraid of a broad utility; they demand it. In this respect they are revolutionists.

2. *The acceptance of the 'problem' as the unit of subject matter.* A second very striking fact is the general acceptance of the

'problem' as the desired unit of organization of the curriculum. Says Dr. Harold Rugg: "Not the learning of texts, but the solving of problems is what we need. Our materials must be organized around issues, problems, unanswered questions which the pupil recognizes as important and which he really strives to unravel." This quotation is largely representative; and when one notes the variety of positions as teachers that the writers hold, such agreement marks a distinct advance in our commonly accepted educational theory.

About 1858 Herbert Spencer complained that instruction in England consisted too generally of names and dates and dead, unmeaning facts. The same condition prevailed in our country till some thirty years ago. Then the "Five Formal Steps of Instruction" were imported from Germany, opposing the teaching of isolated facts and grouping them around generalizations. While they effected a big improvement, they had one almost fatal defect; by accepting generalizations or abstractions as the center for organization, they tended to make the entire instruction abstract. The problem plan tends to remedy this defect, as the problem is a very concrete, specific expression of the learner's need.

3. *The demand for activities or practice.* A third striking point of agreement is found in the demand for "activities." Says Mr. Hatch: "No program for the social studies would be complete, however, unless adequate provision was made for a running fire of civic activities. I am now referring to the training that comes from the actual participation by the pupils in school or group activities when the objective is training in citizenship." Says Dr. Harold Rugg: "Adequate information, then, and practice in using it, both essentials of efficient social action in a democracy, are clearly desiderata for social science courses."

A great advance in the meaning of a study is here urged. Twenty years ago theory alone commanded respect; and to the extent that any subject included practice, it was an object of suspicion. Manual training, involving much handwork, was opposed by many as not properly educative; so, also, was domestic science, domestic art, and a number of other subjects.

The organization of the Boy Scouts and other similar movements then led to the acceptance of extra-curricular activities as a part of the general school program. Now there is a tendency to regard practice as a necessary part of any properly educative subject, and to recognize the household arts and industrial arts as fair standards, in their balance between theory and practice, for all subjects. The writers of these articles do not fully stand for this latter conception, but they seem to me to approach it very closely.

The opposition to these three points is found chiefly in the position of only one of the authors, and then not with reference to the junior and senior high schools, but with reference to the first six grades. That is Mr. Washburne. He says: "As a foundation for all more advanced courses in the social sciences we usually require some knowledge of the basic facts of history and geography.... There are, in theory at least, those who would teach even these facts in a series of contemporary problems, explained by past events; but there is little justification for this extreme view, either from the standpoint of interest or of use." He then sets to work to discover the most important persons, places, dates and events, in regard to which children in the fifth grade should be informed, and collects, in all, "1447 items." These items constitute a skeleton, and when that skeleton is properly clothed with facts, we have a course of study consisting of "Basic Facts needed in History and Geography," good enough for so young children.

I believe that Mr. Washburne's method of procedure in determining the relative value of subject matter has important merits. But his point of view here is encyclopedic out and out; it denies the value of problem work for young children; and it seems to disregard the demand that *doing* be a prominent part of any course of study for them. Evidently in his mind the principles that should guide one in making curricula for the high-school age, do not necessarily hold for younger children. The first six years of school constitute the tool period of education during which a far more mechanical procedure may be expected. It might not seem necessary to call attention to such dualism in theory, did not many other educators show a similar tendency.

PROPOSALS IN REGARD TO THE METHOD OF MAKING CURRICULA

1. *Disregard for past efforts.* How much help do these authors expect from past efforts in curriculum making? Dr. Harold Rugg replies in these words: "Although new histories, geographies, and community civics books are coming from the press month by month, they do not represent the kind of reorganization demanded by the protagonist of the new order. Those materials are merely 'old wine in new bottles.' The covers and titles and section headings are new, but not the detailed materials and activities." Similarly Dr. Horn, in speaking of textbooks, says: "One finds it difficult to accept the theory that a crude sort of trial and error has operated to include valuable subject matter and to exclude material of little value. That such an influence has made itself felt to a very great degree is made to seem unlikely when one examines the texts in the light of the more direct evidence as to what the values in history really are." The general tendency, then, is to show scant respect for what has already been accomplished in curriculum making; the first step in the proper process is to cast aside the rubbish of the past.

While no one will accuse these authors of excessive modesty, any one inclined to complain that wisdom seems to be born with them, must face the responsibility of pointing out wherein they are wrong.

2. *The blending of history, geography, and civics.* Not all the writers are desirous of blending history, geography, and civics. For example, Dean Judd states: "It has been suggested that social studies are nothing but a branch of history. Indeed, the historians are many of them convinced even to-day that social studies ought to be turned over to them. But history is organized around certain relations of sequence and national control which are not at all relevant to those relations of cooperative living which the social studies must emphasize. It is no criticism of history to say that it will not serve the purpose of training pupils in social science; it is merely a recognition of the fact that history has its own centers of systematic organization."

On the other hand, Dr. Harold Rugg proposes that "Current modes of living, contemporary problems, and their historical back-

grounds can be learned more effectively through one unified social science curriculum than through the separate school subjects, history, geography, civics, and the like. A general course brings to the teacher easily, and at the time they are needed, all of the necessary materials of instruction, irrespective of how they have been catalogued in the past.

"Let us make no mistake about this proposal, however. This is not an attempt to merge the established subjects. Rather than that, the procedure we have employed starts with no interest in the established order. It completely disregards current courses. Only one criterion is employed in selecting the content of the courses: its contribution to present living."

While there are, thus, opposing views about the independence of the social sciences, there are enough references to their union one way or another to regard the tendency to unite them as somewhat strong.

3. *The recognition of society as the source of values.* Nearly all of the writers either tacitly or openly turn to society as the source of value in deciding the worth of proposed topics or problems for the curriculum. Dr. Ernest Horn, in Chapter XIV of this volume, presents a very important discussion of the different techniques adopted by investigators in determining the most desirable subject matter. After a brief consideration (1) of the newspaper-magazine method, (2) of the method consisting of an analysis of political platforms, (3) of the method of judgments, and (4) that of the opinions of representative citizens, he points out the weaknesses of each single plan and proposes a union of them all. This analysis of the method of procedure seems to me, possibly, the most valuable portion of this *Yearbook*.

4. *The several factors in curriculum-making.* If I have interpreted the writers correctly, then, most of them show a tendency to look to society alone for the original selection of subject matter. Only what has received extensive social sanction is, in their minds, worthy of a place in a possible curriculum. But Mr. Harap in his contribution at least suggests a broader basis of selection. He names five factors that condition the curriculum, viz., (1) the fundamental elements of effective social life, (2) the nature of

the learner, (3) the laws of learning, (4) the nature of the teacher, (5) the attitude, resources, and limitations of the community.

Possibly Mr. Harap agrees with the other authors in making number one here basal, to which the other four are entirely subordinate. But at any rate numbers four and five call attention to factors which most of the others seem not to have considered.

APPARENT WEAKNESSES IN THE PROPOSALS

1. *Neglect of past experience.* Chapter one is excellent in showing what the social sciences heretofore have *not* done. Although the statements are very strong and sweeping, it is difficult to disprove most of them. Yet that person is bold, indeed, who assumes that no real help toward curriculum-making has been contributed from the past; it hardly seems reasonable. And one's doubt is strengthened when one examines some of the proposed curricula in the light of the past.

Take, for example, the pamphlet on "Immigration" proposed by Messrs. Rugg and Miss Schweppe. It is cited here because it is probably better known than other recent proposals along this line. This pamphlet, entirely ignoring the past, proposes a few weeks' course in which civics, geography, and to some extent history, are typically merged. What kind of geography is it? Aside from brief references here and there to geography, there are eight pages devoted rather exclusively to that study. Pages thirty-five and thirty-six are two of these, under the heading: "Some Facts about Italy and Immigration." The treatment is as encyclopedic as the heading would suggest, and is on about the same plane as the average texts that are so strongly condemned in Chapter I. Page fifty begins with the heading: "Geography we should know about the countries from which our immigrants come," and then follow two pages given to location. The teacher is directed as follows: "Give a test on European place geography at this point. Pass out blank mimeographed maps of Europe and have the pupils do the following exercise. It is important that the pupils should have a clear idea of a few basic place-geography facts." A list of twenty countries of Europe is then given to bound and drill upon. This is as utterly barren subject matter as can be found anywhere.

No modern teacher of geography would stand for such instruction. Similar, but, if possible, worse subject matter, is found on pages eighty, eighty-one, and eighty-two under the caption: "Ports of Europe from which Immigrants Sail to America." Many of the questions there I cannot answer myself, nor do I see any reason for wanting to answer them. If these eight pages are a fair sample of the geography to be gotten by merging the social sciences, then deliver us from such merging! If the authors of this pamphlet had been acquainted with modern geography teaching, they could hardly have proposed such subject matter as this or such a method of procedure. I strongly suspect that modern teachers of history would make similar complaint with regard to that subject.

2. *Neglect of the learner's point of view in original selection of subject matter.* How much shall the point of view of the learner affect the original selection of subject matter? As nearly as I can judge, there is a strong tendency in these articles to regard adult society as the sole source of value. The outline of any curriculum is to be determined by discovering what counts among adults. The facts thus obtained that the learner cannot comprehend or appreciate may be discarded; but he, himself, is not a positive factor in the original selection. Proof of these statements is found in the fact that the writers so generally turn to newspapers or magazines or political platforms or to the judgments of representative men—rather than to children—to find a basis of selection. The extreme to which this method may carry one is illustrated by the inclusion, in Dr. Rugg's pamphlet on "Immigration" of a list of incoming and outgoing steamers and transatlantic mails, together with the day of week and hour of departure. This list is supposed to be consulted by children with reference to the time for mailing letters. It is true that such lists occupy much space in the metropolitan newspapers of New York City and have therefore, according to Dr. Rugg's standards, high social value. But of what use is such matter to children?

The discussion of the Report of the Committee of Fifteen held at Cleveland in 1894 was well summarized at that time by the statement: "What we have been having is a curriculum made out from the point of view of the philosopher to be forced on the

child." "What we want is a curriculum made out from the point of view of the child to be forced on the philosopher." Ever since that time there has been a strong tendency to find at least a good part of the curriculum from within the child. Even though such activities as paper cutting, construction of bird-houses, and moulding of articles out of clay have little or no significance for adults, they might still be prominent parts of a curriculum because they are intimately related to children's interests and can lead to valuable self-expression. My complaint is that this issue has not even been recognized by several of the writers, in spite of the fact that their main interest has been in the method of procedure in curriculum-making.

3. *Neglect of local conditions.* All curricula are made for final use in particular schools. How influential should local conditions be in preparing a curriculum for a particular school? Classroom teachers are expected to pay much attention to the individuality of children; should curriculum-makers show much regard for the individuality of schools?

Eight principals of schools in New York City have recently banded together to work on curricula for their schools. The children in one of these are 98 percent Italian and those in another are largely Polish. The home conditions of the children vary greatly in the eight districts, as do also the geographical environments of the schools, their material equipments, and the training, tastes, and abilities of their teachers.

To these principals the unit in curriculum-making is the individual school rather than the entire system; and each wants subject matter that is much influenced by the peculiar conditions of his school. Supt. Ettinger has given freedom to them to make curricula as different from one another as the varying conditions seem to require.

It is a difficult and extensive task that these people are undertaking, requiring several kinds of local surveys in addition to such as are usually made. Of course, help will be sought, particularly from those persons who have had opportunity to specialize in the making of curricula. And the method of procedure will be the question on which help will be most welcome.

Since this *Yearbook* is primarily concerned with the method of procedure, these principals will no doubt turn to it eagerly for suggestions. What suggestions will they receive? Mr. Harap has named the several factors that he believes they must consider; but beyond that, little attention is given to local conditions. The authors have considered no particular school at any time. They have acted on the assumption that the best way to make a curriculum for a school is to ignore all particulars.

If these principals are on the right track—and I believe they are—then one of the prominent factors in curriculum-making has been sadly slighted in this *Yearbook*.

4. *Over-reliance on subject matter for developing citizenship.* Some nine courses or extensive samples of courses are offered in this *Yearbook* as means for developing a better citizenship. In the minds of the authors young people need to be far better informed on social problems, and informed in a way that includes the use of knowledge acquired. Dr. Harold Rugg well summarized the prevailing attitude in these words: "Adequate information, then, and practice in using it, both essentials of efficient social action in a democracy, are clearly desiderata for social science courses." That is excellent.

But is there not another very important factor in a course for citizenship that has been largely, although not wholly, overlooked? That concerns the students' consciousness of the right method of thinking in this field.

I recently observed a fifth-grade recitation where the children were having a lively discussion of the Sahara Desert. They read statements from a dozen authors and showed numerous pictures. At the end of possibly fifteen minutes, the teacher interrupted them by saying: "Suppose that we summarize here. What do you do when you summarize?" Again later, she said: "Let us summarize again. When you do that, do you attempt to recall all that has been said, or only a part of it? If only a part, how do you know what part to select?"

No doubt she had it in mind at some later period to say: "To-day I shall let you suggest the proper times to stop for a summary. How will you know when such a time comes?" Quite possibly,

too, she would add: "In studying a map of any region, such as this map before us of the Sahara Desert, you should have the habit of estimating the distances you are talking about according to the scale. For example, how far is it from Algiers to Timbuctoo? Also, in studying surface, you should hunt up good relief maps and determine the varying altitudes according to the legend. For example, what facts about the height of sand dunes and mountains in the Sahara can you find from the relief map before us?"

As the instruction was proceeding, I concluded that from one-quarter to one-third of the time of this class in geography was being devoted to a consideration of method, to bringing into the consciousness of the children the rules that should guide them in the study of this subject. No doubt the teacher planned to examine them for promotion on their knowledge and practice of these rules of method as well as on the facts of the subject matter.

For many years Professor Henry Johnson, of Teachers College, has made method of study very prominent in his teaching of history, laying particular emphasis on the ways in which reliability of statements may be judged. I have not forgotten that Dr. Rugg demands much practice in using the information gained, and that both he and Mr. Hatch stress the student's method. But none of the articles in the *Yearbook* proposes a carefully digested series of rules of study for the guidance of the student, which might become a prominent part of the curriculum for citizenship just as the subject matter facts are a part.

The point that I wish to make is that better information on social questions and practice in applying it are insufficient. Many intelligent persons are inclined to believe that a proper way of studying social problems is now our chief need, and that unless that way is itself made an extensive subject of study, it will never be mastered. The best 20 percent of the teachers of our country to-day know the subjects taught in the elementary school very well, and so far as their many facts pertain to conduct, they know how to apply them. Yet not one in a hundred of them knows how children should study them. The fact that method of curriculum-making is only now beginning to receive proper attention suggests

how slowly method comes to consciousness; and if young people are to develop ability to study the new social problems that are constantly arising, the elements that constitute good procedure must become strongly established in their minds.

To my mind this is the most serious defect in the *Yearbook*. It is true that no one can now safely describe in detail the method that children should follow in studying any school subject. But the need for help in this direction is so great in the elementary school, and in the high school in connection with supervised study, that it is too bad that these writers did not make an attempt toward a course in children's method.

CONCLUSIONS

On the whole, what is the value of this *Yearbook*? To my mind it is very great. The common abandonment by the authors of the encyclopedic point of view in curriculum-making, their acceptance of the problem as the unit of organization of subject matter, and their demand that a study include practice as well as theory, these will all have a great influence on our educational theory and practice. The courses of study proposed will likewise exert an enormous influence, for they are remarkably good examples of the application of modern theory to practice. Finally, the acceptance of method of curriculum-making as the great matter to be considered at the present time and the proposals in regard to that method must have the effect of centering attention on that problem in a way that will prove extremely profitable.

Certainly one tendency in the search for a proper method is sound; namely, to evaluate issues from the point of view of adult society. That has to be done. But when that has been well accomplished, the details by which those issues shall be clarified and solved are still very uncertain. When this fact is considered, and when one notes how many prominent factors in curriculum-making have been entirely ignored or seriously neglected by these authors, one is obliged to reach the conclusion that no method of curriculum-making has yet been proposed that is really worthy of being called scientific. At the best we can only say that progress is being made.

APPENDIX I

A SELECTED AND ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

EARLE RUGG

The Lincoln School of Teachers College, New York City

A. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENTS

1. Clark, Edith M.: "The history curriculum since 1850." *The Historical Outlook*, Vol. XI, pp. 58-68. This article traces in an interesting way the main developments of the teaching of history since 1850.
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B. COMMITTEE REPORTS

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33. Hatch, Roy W.: "Teaching modern history by the project method." *Teachers College Record*, Vol. XXI, pp. 452-470. A description of a series of projects which by use of concrete examples illustrates a new method of teaching history.
34. Hill, Howard C.: "Opportunities for correlation between community life and English." *The School Review*, Vol. XXX, pp. 24-36, 114-130, 175-186: An account, very suggestive to teachers of the social sciences, of how civic materials are utilized in English classes in the University of Chicago High School in order to enrich and vitalize both subjects of instruction.
35. Hill, Mabel: "*Teaching of Civics.*" Houghton, Mifflin Company, Boston, 1914. Outlines a course in the elements of community life and offers suggestions for its teaching.
36. Holtz, Frederick L.: "*Principles and Methods of Teaching Geography.*" The Macmillan Company, New York, 1921. Describes the principal present-day methods of teaching geography; gives illustrative lessons; and includes a chapter on the early teaching of geography.

37. Johnson, Henry: "*Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools.*" The Macmillan Company, New York, 1916. An analysis of what history is, what its aims and values are; contains many suggestions on methods of teaching the subject; and includes two excellent chapters on how history came to be taught, both in Europe and in the United States.
38. Rugg, Earle: "Character and value of standardized tests in history." *The School Review*, Vol. XXVII, pp. 757-771. An evaluation of the movement to standardize examination questions in the field of history.
39. Rugg, Earle: "Supervised study in history." *The Historical Outlook*, Vol. XI, pp. 142-149. A description of the efforts to improve the teaching of history through better methods of study and supervision.
40. Tryon, Rolla M.: "*The Teaching of History in Junior and Senior High Schools.*" Ginn & Company, Boston, 1921. A concrete, helpful book on the teaching and organization of secondary school courses in history; suggests various methods of teaching the subject.
41. United States Bureau of Education: "The teaching of community civics." *Bulletin* 23, 1915. Washington, D. C., 1915. This bulletin offers many concrete suggestions for teaching community life and has been influential in shaping our community civics courses to-day.

F. MISCELLANEOUS

42. National Council for the Social Studies: "Annual summary statement." *The Historical Outlook*, Vol. XIII, pp. 317-360. The December, 1922, issue of this periodical is devoted to a summary of the progress of the social studies and to a series of articles describing briefly the experiments being carried on in this field.

For a more extended bibliography on the social sciences, see Thompson, Olive: "A guide to readings in civic education." *Bureau of Research in Education*, Study No. 11, University of California Press, Berkeley, Calif. Nov., 1922, 58 pp. Price 50c.

APPENDIX II

A STATISTICAL PRESENTATION OF FACTS CONCERNING THE CURRENT COURSES

TABLE I. STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF RETURNS ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE ON TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP¹

Number schools reporting.....	1,180	3. Schools doing so by means of	
Number developing citizenship through		a) Selected readings..	599
Arousing sentiments by means of		b) Memorization work	75
I. Assembly talks	1,164	c) Dramatic appeal..	179
1. Frequency of meetings		d) Interpretative power of teachers	586
a) Daily	33	e) Class discussions and debates ..	213
b) Weekly	520		
c) 2 or 3 times weekly	155	X. Visits to places and institutions	
d) 1, 2, or 3 times monthly	230	1. Schools doing so.....	495
e) Occasionally and irregularly	197	2. Schools not doing so.	538
2. Speakers		a) Civic councils and offices	166
a) Superintendent and principal	408	b) State institutions	73
b) Teachers	363	c) Courts and penal institutions	185
c) Students	71	d) Charitable institutions	100
d) Local Citizens and notables	1,053	e) Social settlements	77
II. Music of stirring type....	1,142	f) Religious and educational institutions	33
1. Frequency		g) Local voluntary organizations	54
a) Daily or at occasional assemblies	131	h) Factories, mines, farms, etc.	211
b) 1, 2, or 3 times weekly	654		
c) Occasionally	239	B. Giving citizenship information through	
III. Oral readings before classes		I. A course in civics	
1. Schools having.....	768	1. Schools having.....	1,148
2. Schools not having...	210	2. In course separated from history.....	989
IV. Prescribed class readings		3. In course with history	144
1. Schools having.....	869	4. In grades	
2. Schools not having..	175	a) Ninth	160
V. Dramatics		b) Tenth	76
1. Schools having.....	398	c) Eleventh	339
2. Schools not having...	614	d) Twelfth	886
VI. Pageantry		Total	1,461
1. Schools having.....	352		
2. Schools not having...	674	5. Length of courses	
VII. Moving pictures		a) Less than half year	43
1. Schools having.....	290	b) Half years	890
2. Schools not having...	710	c) One year	145
VIII. Stereopticons		6. Texts used in high school ²	
1. Schools having.....	438	a) Ashley's <i>The New American Government</i>	153
2. Schools not having...	541	b) Hughes' <i>Community Civics</i>	116
IX. Literature taught inspirational			
1. Schools claiming to do so	1,080		
2. Schools failing to do so	38		

¹This table reprinted from the *School Review*, April, 1920, by permission of the author, Dr. C. O. Davis, and the editors of the magazine.

²In addition to the texts named here occasionally others are mentioned. The same holds true of the lists given in II and III below.

c) Magruder's <i>American Government</i>	144	III. A course in elementary economics	
d) Guitteau's <i>Government and Politics in the United States</i>	208	1. Schools having.....	696
e) Boynton's <i>School Civics</i>	33	2. Schools not having....	406
f) Woodburn and Morgan's <i>Citizen and the Republic</i>	55	3. Separate from history	662
g) Garner's <i>Government in the United States</i> ...	73	4. Separate from civics..	609
h) Dunn's <i>The Community and the Citizen</i>	28	5. Separate from sociology	511
i) Forman's <i>Advanced Civics</i>	72	6. Texts used	
j) James and Sanford's <i>Government in State and Nation</i>	137	a) Thompson's <i>Elementary Economics</i>	64
7. Recitations five times weekly	1,072	b) Ely and Wicker's <i>Principles of Elementary Economics</i>	199
8. Civics below the high school		c) Bullock's <i>Elements of Economics</i>	127
a) Schools having	871	d) Burch and Nearing's <i>Elements of Economics</i>	70
b) Schools not having	112	e) Laughlin's <i>Elements of Political Economy</i>	43
9. Texts used below high school		7. Grades offered	
a) Dunn's <i>Community Civics</i>	85	a) Ninth	11
b) Turkington's <i>My Country</i>	74	b) Tenth	41
c) Forman's <i>Essentials in Civil Government</i>	32	c) Eleventh	322
d) Hughes' <i>Community Civics</i>	117	d) Twelfth	497
e) Guitteau's <i>Preparing for Citizenship</i>	63	8. Five recitations weekly	622
f) Nida's <i>City, State, and Nation</i>	31	IV. A course in current events	
g) Others	111	1. Schools having.....	1,008
II. A course in elementary sociology		2. Schools not having....	121
1. Schools having.....	208	3. As separate course...	176
2. Schools not having....	770	4. As course connected with	
3. Course separate from civics	230	a) History, civics, sociology, economics	911
4. Course separate from history	238	b) English	518
5. Texts used		5. Time allotment per week	
a) Tufts' <i>The Real Business of Living</i>	87	a) Under 40 minutes..	150
b) Towne's <i>Social Problems</i>	108	b) From 40 to 50 minutes	592
c) Ellwood's <i>Sociology and Modern Social Problems</i>	22	c) Over 50 minutes	121
d) Burch and Patterson's <i>American Social Problems</i> .	15	6. Sources of information	
6. Grades offered		a) <i>Current Events</i>	146
a) Ninth	17	b) <i>Literary Digest</i>	376
b) Tenth	22	c) <i>Outlook</i>	104
c) Eleventh	119	d) <i>Independent</i>	154
d) Twelfth	186	e) <i>Review of Reviews</i>	40
7. Five recitations weekly	218	f) <i>World's Work</i>	27
		g) Newspapers (un-specified)	428
		h) Magazines (un-specified)	531
		7. Prescribed for	
		a) Pupils in history and civics courses	278
		b) Pupils in English courses	136
		c) Designated groups of pupils	618
		V. A course in morals, manners, and life problems...	112
		VI. A course in occupations (or similar course)	194
		VII. History taught by stressing	
		1. The worth of being free	1,057

2. American ideals	639	XII. Reading the following magazines:	
3. Development of free institutions	446	1. <i>Literary Digest</i>	841
4. Current social problems	403	2. <i>Independent</i>	542
5. Responsibilities of citizenship	155	3. <i>Outlook</i>	472
VIII. Biography studied		4. <i>World's Work</i>	314
1. In some way unspecified	1,012	5. <i>Review of Reviews</i>	312
2. In history and English courses	657	6. <i>Current Events</i>	164
3. In special programs or independently	461	7. <i>American</i>	136
IX. Knowledge of the problems of capital and labor gained through		8. <i>Popular Mechanics</i>	51
1. Assembly talks	161	9. <i>American Boy</i>	52
2. Debates and discussions	380	10. <i>Atlantic Monthly</i>	57
3. Regular class work	526	11. <i>Current Opinion</i>	74
4. Readings and current events reports	176	12. <i>New Republic</i>	33
X. Training to use leisure time wholesomely by means of		13. <i>Pathfinder</i>	62
1. School athletics	159	14. <i>National Geographic Magazine</i>	60
2. Lectures and talks	301	15. <i>Saturday Evening Post</i>	43
3. Suggested readings	188	16. <i>Current History</i>	39
4. Supervision of student affairs	173	C. Giving practice in citizenship through connection with	
5. Student clubs and societies	194	I. Junior Red Cross Societies	
XI. Reading the following books:		1. Schools having	880
1. Hale's <i>The Man Without a Country</i>	125	2. Schools not having	172
2. Theodore Roosevelt (<i>Life and works</i>) (Various authors)	55	II. Junior Good Citizenship League or similar organization	
3. Riis's <i>Making an American</i>	106	1. Schools having	76
4. Gauss's <i>Democracy Today</i>	98	2. Schools not having	658
5. Austin's <i>The Promised Land</i>	73	III. Boy Scout Organization	
6. Washington's <i>Up from Slavery</i>	38	1. Schools having	651
7. Riis's <i>How the Other Half Lives</i>	33	2. Schools not having	305
8. Tufts' <i>The Real Business of Living</i>	35	IV. Girl Scout Organization or Campfire Girls	
9. Biographies of Great Men (Various authors)	97	1. Schools having	522
10. American Statesmen Series (Various authors)	65	2. Schools not having	387
11. Watkins and Williams' Forum of Democracy	38	V. Thrift Clubs	
12. Franklin's Autobiography	22	1. Schools having	421
13. Turkington's <i>My Country</i>	31	2. Schools not having	458
14. Beard's <i>American Ideals</i>	23	VI. School paper	
15. <i>World War Aims and Ideals</i> (Various authors)	50	1. Schools having	666
		2. Schools not having	360
		VII. Military training	
		1. Schools having	203
		2. Schools not having	720
		3. Schools prescribing it for boys	83
		4. Schools making it optional	107
		VIII. Debating clubs	
		1. Schools having	863
		2. Schools not having	194
		IX. Mock elections	
		1. Schools having	368
		2. Schools not having	379
		X. Student self-government agencies	
		1. Schools having	306
		2. Schools not having	550
		3. Schools publicly advertising the fact	148
		4. Schools not publicly advertising the fact	393
		5. Schools having formal machinery for	242
		6. Schools having teachers exert much control	204
		7. Schools having teachers exert little control	255

XI. Schools inculcating patriotism through		
1. Patriotic celebrations.	96	
2. Talks and lectures...	189	
3. Self-government agencies	228	
4. Student co-operative associations	169	
5. Participation in school organizations	381	
6. Athletics	123	
7. Regular class work..	353	
8. School discipline	127	
XII. Community centers		
1. Schools having.....	373	
2. Schools not having...	398	
Expressions of personal views		
I. Authorities favoring a school pledge	428	
II. Authorities not favoring a school pledge	415	
III. Authorities favoring a Junior Civic League.....	672	
IV. Authorities not favoring a Junior Civic League.....	183	
V. Authorities favoring a local branch of society of Universal Service for Social Improvement		
		432
VI. Authorities not favoring such branch		
		207
VII. Authorities believing training for citizenship can best be secured through		
1. Good teaching in all branches	346	
2. Courses in the social sciences and literature	188	
3. Stressing ideals of conduct by teachers.....	381	
4. Personal example of teachers	277	
5. Placing responsibilities for pupils personally.	284	
6. Student organizations.	328	
7. Providing out-of-school services for society...	140	
8. School discipline	150	

TABLE II.—NUMBER OF MINUTES PER WEEK DEVOTED TO HISTORY, IN PUBLIC CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS

	School Grades											
	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII		
	46	36	13	8	3	3	32	6	8	9		
0- 14												
15- 29	1	1	2	1							1	
30- 44	12	7	3	2	1	1						
45- 59	12	6	1	1	1	1						
60- 74	5	6	7	5	2							
75- 89	1	5	8	7	2							
90-104	4	10	15	8	3							
105-119		1		1	1						1	
120-134		5	15	18	15		11	1			1	
135-149				1	3							
150-164		2	10	17	16		10	1	3	2	2	
165-179				2	2		2	1	1	1		
180-194				1	9		8					
195-209			1	3	8		11	11	21	19	15	
210-224							1		1	1	2	
225-239						3	4	15	23	21	20	
240-254				1	1	2	2	5	7	7	5	
255-269												
270-284						1	1			1	1	
285-299												
300-314	1					2	2	3	6	3	2	
315-329							1	1	1	1		
330-344												
345-359												
360-374												
375-389									1	1		
	82	79	75	76	73	63	68	68	65	60		

TABLE III.—NUMBER OF MINUTES PER WEEK DEVOTED TO GEOGRAPHY, IN PUBLIC CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS

	School Grades											
	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII		
	35	5		1	7	38	50	52	62	54		
0- 14												
15- 29	1	1	2	1								
30- 44	9	3		1		1						
45- 59	5	1				1	1	1				
60- 74	11	2	4	4	3							
75- 89	10	10	5	7	2		7					
90-104	9	24	21	13	7		2	1			1	
105-119		1	1	3	1							
120-134	1	16	21	15	16		8				1	
135-149		2		1	3		1					
150-164		5	13	22	27	21	9					
165-179				1	4	1						
180-194		2		2	5	3						
195-209	3	7	8	10	4		9	4	1	1		
210-224	1	1	1	2	1							
225-239			2	2	2		4	8	2	4		
240-254	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	1		
255-269												
270-284					1	-1		1	1	1		
285-299												
300-314					2							
	86	85	87	87	89	77	67	67	67	63		

TABLE IV.—NUMBER OF MINUTES PER WEEK DEVOTED TO CIVICS, IN
PUBLIC CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS

	School Grades											
	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII		
0- 14	61	55	47	45	34	2	25	51	45	12		
15- 29	4	4	2	3							1	
30- 44	6	10	12	7	1		1				1	
45- 59	8	7	5	9	5	3					1	
60- 74		1	5	8	9	6	1					
75- 89	1	1		1	6	3	1					
90-104			1	3	3	4	3		1			
105-119							2					
120-134					6	8	1	1				
135-149							1					
150-164				1	4		1	1			1	
165-179					1							
180-194						4						
195-209					1	4	2	5	7	13		
210-224						1	1				1	
225-239					1	2			6	19		
240-254						1		4	2		5	
255-269								1				
270-284					1	1			1		1	
285-299							1					
300-314						1					1	
315-329								2	1		1	
330-344												
345-359												
360-374												
375-389							1				1	
	80	78	72	76	68	54	41	65	63	57		

TABLE V.—NUMBER OF MINUTES PER WEEK DEVOTED TO HISTORY AND
CIVICS, IN PUBLIC CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS

	School Grades											
	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII		
0- 14												
15- 29	1		1									
30- 44		1	2									
45- 59	4	2	3	2		1						
60- 74	1											
75- 89		1			1							
90-104		3	5	2	6	4						
105-119												
120-134			1	4	1	3	1	1	1	1		
135-149												
150-164			2	1	3	2					1	1
165-179			1									
180-194					1	1						
195-209				1		5	2		1			
210-224						2	2				3	
225-239						2					1	
240-254						1						
255-269						2						
270-284						1	1	1	1			
285-299												
300-314						1	5					
315-329						2	1					
	6	7	14	12	23	27	4	2	3	7		

TABLE VI.—SUMMARY OF REPLIES TO QUESTION BLANK RECEIVED FROM
100 SCHOOL SYSTEMS

1. Do you teach current events as a separate course?	Number of schools reporting Yes 16	No 82						
	Number of schools not reporting 2							
2. Number of minutes per week devoted to current events								
Grade.....	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
No. giving no answers	70	66	58	62	73	75	72	67
0- 14	2	2	2	2	3	3	2	1
15- 29	11	7	6	4	3	1	0	1
30- 44	14	19	23	21	10	9	10	14
45- 59	3	6	7	6	11	9	13	14
60- 74	0	0	3	2	0	1	2	2
75- 89	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0
90-104	0	0	1	2	0	225-1	225-1	225-1
	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

3. Do you use debates as a fairly regular feature of the class work in history or related subjects?

Number reporting Yes 48 Number not reporting 1

4. Number of debates
- | |
|---|
| 1-5, 9; 6-10, 22; 11-15, 0; 16-20, 4 Total 35 |
| Others not counted - - - - 5 |

Eight answering yes did not report the number.

5. Do pupils subscribe for magazines?

Number answering Yes 71 No 28 Number not reporting 1

6. Magazines subscribed for by children

Current Events mentioned 42 times

Literary Digest 44

Current Topics Leaflet (loose leafs) 12

Independent 5

Others less than 5

7. If not. Does school buy enough library copies for a class to use at the same time?

Number reporting Yes 9; No 18. Number not reporting 2

8. What magazines

6 report Literary Digest

Others mentioned only once or twice

9. Required to give state examinations at end of eighth grade.

History Geography Civics

Number reporting Yes 12 No 83 Yes 11 No 79 Yes 9 No 84

Number not reporting 5 10 7

10. Home study required

Number reporting Yes 87; No 12. Number not reporting 1

11. Number of minutes per week—Home study.

Minutes	Grades			Minutes	Grades		
	3-6	7-9	10-12		3-6	7-9	10-12
0- 29	28	1	0	180-209	0	7	10
30- 59	3	15	7	210-239	0	1	2
60- 89	4	5	6	240-269	1	1	3
90-119	8	8	5	270-299	0	0	0
120-149	1	8	7	300-329	3	5	
150-179	2	15	6	330	1	1	2
					48	65	53

TABLE VII.—HISTORY AND CRITIQUE OF RELATIVE EFFECTIVENESS OF
VARIOUS FORMS OF GOVERNMENT WITH WHICH SOCIETY HAS
EXPERIMENTED TO SECURE ADEQUATE EXPRESSION OF
(1) POPULAR OPINION (2) MOST INTELLIGENT
OPINIONS.¹

Comparative History of English and American forms of Party Government.	Critique of the Effectiveness of American Mechanism of Nominations and Elections	History of New Methods of Municipal and State Government. (a) Commission plan, (b) City Manager plan	History of Modern Political Thinking as Embodied in (1) Socialism (2) Anarchism (3) Syndicalism (4) Guild Socialism
Book A			
3/4p. Beginning of (Amer.) political Parties. 1p. Growth of Party Spirit. 1/2p. Formation of new Political Parties. 3/4p. Electoral commission.	1/2p. "Spoils System." 1p. Corruption in Political Life.	1/2p. Commission Form of Gov't. 1/4 City Mgr.	1/2p. Socialism
Book B			
3/4p. Rise of Political Parties. 1 1/2p. "Representative" Gov't in the Colonies.	1/2p. Wrongdoing on part of Public Officers. 1/2p. Criticism of Faithless Officials. 1/2p. Evil Election Practices. 1/2p. Evils in the Management of Political Parties. 3/4p. Evils of the "Spoils System."	1/2p. Commission gov't. 1/2p. City Manager Plan.	2p. Socialism.
Book C			
1p. "Down with the King Caucus." 1p. New Political Parties. 1p. Democracy in Europe. Incidental references to parties.	3/4p. "To the Victors belong the Spoils." 3/4p. Political Bosses.	1/2p. Commission Plan. 2 lines— City Manager.	
Book D			
3/4p. "Two Schools of Politics." 1/2p. The First Parties. 1p. Democratic and Whig Parties. 1p. The Whigs in Power (1840-42.) 1p. Party Politics (1864-1876.) 6 lines Electoral Commission.	3/4p. Dark Side of gov't (Tweed Ring.) 1p. "Spoils System."	1 1/4p. Commission gov't for cities.	1/2p. Socialism. 2 lines. "Anarchists."

¹The statistical and analytical work on which Tables 3 to 7 are based, was done in 1920-21 by Cecile Colloton.

TABLE VIII.—NUMBER OF PAGES OF FOUR CURRENT TEXTS DEVOTED TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF BUSINESS

Business Combination vs. Competition.	Government Regulation of Business.
Book A	
2p. The Growth of Corporations, Combination of Capital ½p. Railway Combinations	½p. Anti-Trust Laws ¾p. Interstate Commerce Commis- sion Act, 1887
Book B	
1½p. The Work of the Business Men 1¾p. The Great Industrial Trusts ¾p. Railroad Combinations and Captains of Industry	½p. Anti-Trust Laws ½p. Dissolution of Trusts ½p. Clayton Anti-Trust Law ¾p. Interstate Commerce Commis- sion Act, 1887
Book C	
1p. "Big Business"; Trusts	5 lines. Interstate Commerce Com- mission Act, 1887
Book D	
1¼p. Big Business Men ½p. Monopolies and Trusts ½p. Corporations and Banks ¾p. Large Corporations (1865-85)	¾p. Interstate Commerce Commis- sion Act, 1887 ½p. Anti-Trust Laws ½p. Trade Commission 1½p. Government Business

TABLE IX.—NUMBER OF PAGES OF FOUR CURRENT TEXTS DEVOTED TO LABOR PROBLEMS

History of Move- ment for Considera- tion of hours, wages, profits, and democratization of control.	Labor Unionism.	Employers' Organizations.	Collective and Individual Bargaining.
Book A			
	½p. Labor Unions and Factory Laws.	1p. Employers' Associations and Welfare Work.	
Book B			
2½p. Public and Gov't. involved. Demand of public for an adjustment of Labor disputes. 2½p. The Labor Movement.	2½p. Protective Organizations of Employees.	½p. Employers' Organizations.	
Book C		Book D	
1¼p. Organization of Laborers.	½p. Employers' Organizations.	2p. Labor Organiza- tions (1865-86.) 1p. Labor. ¾p. Labor Unions (1830-50.)	

TABLE X.—NUMBER OF PAGES OF FOUR CURRENT TEXTS DEVOTED TO THE HISTORY OF THE PRESS

History of the Press.	How News is Disseminated.	How the Press forms Public Opinion.	Freedom of the Press.
Book A			
Op. Press as a whole. 1½p. Newspaper and printing presses before 1730. ½p. Incidental—showing that papers contribute to dissemination of truth (Tweed.)			
Book B			
1½p. Colonial Press. 1½p. Rise of the Partisan Press. ½p. Inventions and their Results.	¾p. Magazines, Pamphlets. ½p. Illustrated papers. 1¼p. the Growth of the Magazine as an Educational Work.	½p. Influence of Colonial Press on the Revolution. ½p. Influence of Magazine Stories on Politics.	½p. Opposition of royal governors.
Book C			
½p. Newspaper in the Colonies. ½p. The Effects of the Rotary or Cylindrical Press on the Newspapers; first New York papers.	6 lines. "Why the People Knew so Little of Each Other." Difficulty of Getting Newspapers.	1 line. "Usefulness as Teachers of the People."	
Book D			
1 line. Gutenberg's invention. 1 line. Hoe's printing press. ½p. Colonial Reading Matter.	¾ "For the Reading of the Community."		

Several incidental references to "Newspapers."

TABLE XI.—(1) NUMBER OF PAGES OF FOUR RECENT TEXTS DEVOTED TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF CREDIT FACILITIES. (2) NUMBER OF PAGES DEVOTED TO CRITICAL CONSIDERATION OF CREDIT FACILITIES.

(1)	Book A	(2)
½p. First Bank of United States		
¼p. New System of National Banks —1863		
¼p. Federal Reserve Act of 1913		
Book B		
½p. United States Bank—1791		
1½p. "Federal Reserve" Banks 2 lines—Farm Loan system		
Book C		
¼p. A Mint and a National Bank		
Book D		
½p. Hamilton's Bank 1791		
1¼p. Second U. S. Bank 1816		
½p. Federal Reserve System		

TABLE XII.—PERCENTAGE OF SPACE DEVOTED TO (1) POLITICAL, (2) MILITARY, AND (3) SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC MATERIAL IN EIGHT EARLY TEXTBOOKS IN AMERICAN HISTORY OF ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOL GRADE (BOOKS PUBLISHED BEFORE 1860).¹

Author	Title	Political	Military	Social and Economic
Goodrich, C. A....	History of the United States.....	36.7	37.7	25.6
Goodrich, S. G.... (Peter Parley)	A Pictorial History of United States.....	32.8	56.2	11.0
Olney, J.....	A History of the United States.....	46.6	43.8	9.6
Sullivan, William.	History of the United States of America....	47.7	43.4	8.9
Taylor, C. B.....	A Universal History of the United States of America.....	38.5	49.6	11.9
Webster, Noah...	History of the United States.....	41.5	25.5	34.0
Willard, Emma...	Abridged History of the United States.....	44.7	48.3	7.0
Willson, M.....	History of the United States.....	50.3	43.6	6.1
Average.....		38.4	44.3	17.2

NOTE—Tables XIII; XIII; XIV; XV; and XVI supplied by Earle Rugg from a forthcoming study.

TABLE XIII.—PERCENTAGE OF SPACE DEVOTED TO (1) POLITICAL, (2) MILITARY, AND (3) SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC MATERIAL IN EIGHT CURRENT COMMONLY USED TEXT-BOOKS IN AMERICAN HISTORY OF ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOL GRADES.

Elementary School Texts

Author	Title	Political	Military	Social and Economic
Beard, C. A. and Bagley, W. C....	The History of the American People.....	39.12	12.59	48.29
Bourne, H. E. and Burton, E. J....	A History of the United States.....	44.65	17.94	37.41
Guitteau, W. B....	Our United States—A History.....	37.52	25.47	37.01
Hart, A. B..... (Elementary school text)	School History of the United States.....	44.52	9.60	45.88

High School Texts

Fite, E. D.....	History of the United States.....	55.44	14.11	30.45
Hart, A. B..... (High school text)	New American History..	53.75	10.88	35.37
McLaughlin, A. C.	A History of the American Nation.....	61.55	14.25	24.20
Muzzey, D. S....	An American History...	62.66	11.94	25.40
Average		49.90	14.59	35.50

Compare these eight current histories with the eight early histories for proportion of space given to political, military and social and economic material. Notice increase in emphasis on political, and social and economic. Notice decrease in emphasis on military history.

TABLE XIV.—NUMBER OF PAGES DEVOTED TO CERTAIN FUNDAMENTAL SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC TOPICS IN EIGHT CURRENT HISTORIES AND IN EIGHT EARLY HISTORIES.

Current History texts 1921		Early History texts—Before 1860										Average pages of early texts	
		Bentley and Bowne and Braggley	Blatt	Brett	Briggs	Cattellau	Goodrich, C. A.	Goodrich, J. C. B.	Hilliard, Webster,	Hilliard, Wilson, M.	Muzzey	Average pages of current books	
Agriculture.....	5	7	7	3	8	6	5	4	2	2	1/2	1/2	5
Banking and Money	8	4	12	10	21	12	13	18	4	4	1/2	1/2	12
Canal and Roads.....	7	3	5	5	5	7	5	3	1/2	1/2	0	1/2	5
Commerce and Trade.....	14	6	8	9	15	8	5	5	0	1/2	0	1/2	8
Education.....	22	10	11	7	2	6	2	1 1/2	5	2	1/2	1/2	7
Fisheries.....	3/4	1/4	2/3	1/6	1/6	1/6	1/2	1/2	1/2	0	0	0	1/2
Inventions and Patents.....	10	4	4	3	5	2	2	1/2	1/2	0	0	0	1/2
Labor.....	19	7	10	9	8	9	6	6	0	0	0	0	9
Manufacturers and Business.....	21	19	13	9	10	9	4	6	5	1/2	1/2	1/2	1
Mining.....	2	3/4	1/2	2	2	1/2	1/2	1/2	0	0	1/2	1/2	1
Natural Resources.....	15	13	9	9	13	15	15	15	1/2	2	0	1/2	10
Newspapers and Literature.....	9	1 1/2	1/2	1	3/4	4	1	1	3/4	1/2	2	1/2	2
Population.....	18	17	21	17	21	13	6	6	5	1/2	2	1/2	14
Post Service.....	1/2	1/2	1/2	1/2	1/2	1/2	1/2	1/2	0	1/2	0	1/2	1/2
Railroads.....	6	8	4	4	6	10	7	6	0	1/2	0	1/2	6
Religion and Church.....	4	4	4	7	9	8	8	3	8	1/2	0	1/2	5
River and Lake Traffic.....	5	1	1	1	3	2	2	1	1/2	1/2	4	7	4
Slavery.....	21	11	32	6	30	26	28	41	1 1/2	2	1/2	1/2	5
Tariff and Trade Restraint.....	7	2	8	6	18	6	10	10	1/2	1/2	1/2	1/2	3
Tax and Debt.....	5	7	4	2	6	2	5	5	6	11	3	2	25
Telephone and Telegraph.....	1	1/12	1/10	1/4	1/4	1/4	1/4	1/4	0	0	1/2	1/2	1
General Economics.....	25	19	28	30	12	19	17	14	46	11	0	9	6
Social conditions, Life of people.....	25	19	28	30	12	19	17	14	46	11	0	9	6

TABLE XV.—THE PERCENTAGE OF SPACE ALLOTTED TO EACH OF THESE PERIODS IN AMERICAN HISTORY BY THE STUDY OF W. C. BAGLEY AND H. O. RUGG OF 23 ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEXTS PUBLISHED 1860-1912; EIGHT CURRENT HISTORIES (E. V. RUGG); THE COMMITTEE OF EIGHT REPORT, 1909; AND EIGHT EARLY TEXTS PUBLISHED BEFORE 1860.

Period	The Bagley-Rugg Study	Study of current histories	Committee of eight report	Early histories published before 1860
Discovery and Exploration				
1000-1607.....	8.27	5.73	12.90	8.09
Colonization 1607-1690.....	15.95	8.89	21.20	28.73
Colonial Wars 1690-1763.....	3.67	6.48	3.10	6.48
Pre-Revolutionary War Period				
1763-1775.....	4.11	3.50	2.06	4.32
Revolutionary War 1775-1783..	9.58	5.67	14.40	20.36
Period 1783-1812.....	14.17	10.82	8.70	9.60
Period 1812-1861.....	21.01	24.28	22.70	*22.76
Civil War 1861-1865.....	10.22	7.70	6.10	
Period 1865-1912.....	14.45	21.69	9.30	
Period 1912 to date.....		5.86		

*The proportionate emphasis is not exactly comparable in the last column because these histories were published between 1821-1857.

TABLE XVI.—THE 25 DATES MENTIONED MOST FREQUENTLY IN 8 CURRENT HISTORIES

Rank	Dates	Table A Total number of times mentioned by all books	Table B The 20 most important dates, ranked by the judgments of leading historians		
			Rank	Dates	Rank as determined by frequency of mention in texts
1	1860	300	1	1776	(11)
2	1850	268	2	1492	(126)
3	1861	243	3	1607	(78)
4	1812	229	4	1789	(22)
5	1865	219	5	1620	(141)
6	1862	204	6	1803	(37)
7	1890	147	7	1861	(3)
8	1863	144	8	1787	(13)
9	1864	143	9	1863	(8)
10	1775	137	10	1820	(17)
11	1776	134	11	1812	(4)
12	1840	134	12	1765	(116)
13	1787	132	13	1783	(23)
14	1917	128	14	1865	(5)
15	1910	124	15	1850	(2)
16	1848	117	16	1854	(42)
17	1820	116	17	1775	(10)
18	1913	114	18	1781	(41)
19	1900	113	19	1823	(140)
20	1846	113	20	1846	(20)
21	1830	112			
22	1789	111			
23	1783	109			
24	1898	106			
25	1837	101			

Of the twenty-five dates of Table A mentioned over 100 times, Nos. 1, 6, 7, 9, 12, 14, 15, 16, 18, 19, 21, 24 and 25 are not on the list of dates ranked as important by the historians.

459 different dates mentioned in current histories. Random sample of 100 pages gives an average of 2.1 dates mentioned per page. About 250 different dates mentioned in each book. In early texts a random sample show 2.01 dates mentioned per page.

CONSTITUTION OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION

ARTICLE I

Name.—The name of this Society shall be “The National Society for the Study of Education.”

ARTICLE II

Object.—Its purposes are to carry on the investigation and to promote the discussion of educational problems.

ARTICLE III

Membership.—Section 1. There shall be three classes of members—active, associate, and honorary.

SEC. 2. Any person who is desirous of promoting the purposes of this Society is eligible to active membership and shall become a member on approval of the Executive Committee.

SEC. 3. Active members shall be entitled to hold office, to vote, and to participate in discussion.

SEC. 4. Associate members shall receive the publications of the Society, and may attend its meetings, but shall not be entitled to hold office, or to vote, or to take part in the discussion.

SEC. 5. Honorary members shall be entitled to all the privileges of active members, with the exception of voting and holding office, and shall be exempt from the payment of dues.

A person may be elected to honorary membership by vote of the Society on nomination by the Executive Committee.

SEC. 6. The names of the active and honorary members shall be printed in the *Yearbook*.

SEC. 7. The annual dues for active members shall be \$2.00 and for associate members \$1.00. The election fee for active and for associate members shall be \$1.00.

ARTICLE IV

Officers and Committees.—SECTION 1. The officers of this Society shall be a president, a vice-president, a secretary-treasurer, an executive committee, and a board of trustees.

SEC. 2. The Executive Committee shall consist of the president and four other members of the Society.

SEC. 3. The president and vice-president shall serve for a term of one year, the secretary-treasurer for a term of three years. The other members of the Executive Committee shall serve for four years, one to be elected by the Society each year.

SEC. 4. The Executive Committee shall have general charge of the work of the Society, shall appoint the secretary-treasurer, and may, at its discretion, appoint an editor of the *Yearbook*.

SEC. 5. A board of trustees consisting of three members shall be elected by the Society for a term of three years, one to be elected each year.

The Board of Trustees shall be the custodian of the property of the Society, shall have power to make contracts, and shall audit all accounts of the Society, and make an annual financial report.

SEC. 6. The method of electing officers shall be determined by the Society.

ARTICLE V

Publications.—The Society shall publish *The Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education* and such supplements as the Executive Committee may provide for.

ARTICLE VI

Meetings.—The Society shall hold its annual meetings at the time and place of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association. Other meetings may be held when authorized by the Society or by the Executive Committee.

ARTICLE VII

Amendments.—This constitution may be amended at any annual meeting by a vote of two-thirds of voting members present.

MINUTES OF THE CHICAGO MEETING OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION

February 25 and 28, 1922

Like the Atlantic City meeting, the holding of two sessions proved worth while at Chicago. Both programs dealt with the general topic covered by the *Twenty-First Yearbook*—"Intelligence Tests and Their Use."

The first session, held at the Congress Hotel, Saturday evening, February 25, was called to order about 8:15 by President F. J. Kelly and some 700 persons listened to the following program:

THE NATURE AND USES OF MENTAL TESTS OF THE LINGUISTIC TYPE

S. S. Colvin, Professor of Educational Psychology, Brown University and Chairman of the Society's Committee on the 21st Yearbook.

THE CONTRIBUTION OF INTELLIGENCE AND THE DYNAMIC TRAITS TO ACHIEVEMENT

Harold Rugg, The Lincoln School of Teachers' College.

USING INTELLIGENCE TESTS IN THE CLASSIFICATION OF SCHOOL CHILDREN

Helen Davis, Director of Measurements and Special Education, Jackson, Michigan.

THE INTELLIGENCE TEST AS PART OF A PRACTICAL TESTING PROGRAM

B. R. Buckingham, Director of the Bureau of Educational Research, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

As one or two of the speakers had exceeded the time limits assigned them, President Kelly deferred discussion of this program to the next session. The Secretary then briefly explained the purpose and organization of the Society and bespoke the cooperation of members of the Society in behalf of the Committee charged with preparing a *Yearbook* on "The Education of Gifted Children."

At the business meeting that followed, the only important item was the election of officers for the ensuing year. The report of the nominating committee, presented by Dean W. S. Gray, was adopted unanimously, as follows:

For *President*, Ernest Horn, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa; for *Vice-President*, Agnes L. Rogers, Goucher College, Baltimore, Maryland; for member of the *Executive Committee*,

to serve for four years, L. V. Koos, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota; for member of the *Board of Trustees*, to serve three years, L. C. Lord, State Normal School, Charleston, Illinois.

The second session, held at the Auditorium Theatre, Tuesday evening, February 28, was a joint session with the Department of Superintendence and was attended by a large audience. In honor of the occasion, Superintendent Jones of Cleveland, Ohio, President of the Department of Superintendence, opened the program at 8:00 o'clock with a brief address. President Kelly then introduced the speakers of the evening and their topics as follows:

**THE GENERAL PHILOSOPHY OF GRADING AND PROMOTION IN
RELATION TO INTELLIGENCE TESTING**

Henry W. Holmes, Dean of the Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

**SOME PITFALLS IN THE ADMINISTRATIVE USE OF INTELLIGENCE
TESTS**

M. R. Trabue, Assistant Professor of Education, and Director of the Bureau of Educational Service of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City

**THE CLASSIFICATION OF TEN THOUSAND FIRST-GRADE DETROIT
CHILDREN BY INTELLIGENCE TESTS**

Charles S. Berry, Professor of Educational Psychology, School of Education, University of Michigan, and Director of the Psychological Clinic, Detroit Public Schools

INTELLIGENCE TESTS IN NORMAL SCHOOLS

Bessie Lee Gambrill, Head of the Psychology Department, State Normal School, Trenton, New Jersey

**THE USE OF INTELLIGENCE TESTS IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF
WOMEN'S COLLEGES**

Agnes Rogers, Head of the Department of Education, Goucher College, Baltimore, Maryland

The discussion from the platform included the contribution of Professor F. S. Breed, of the School of Education, University of Chicago, which had been originally scheduled for Saturday evening, and that of Dr. W. W. Theisen, Director of Reference and Research, Public Schools, Cleveland, Ohio.

That the *Yearbook* and these two programs of the Society were important contributions to education is attested by the size of the audiences, by the many congratulatory remarks made at the

time, and by the unusual sale, since the Chicago meeting, of the *Twenty-First Yearbook*, of which nearly 8,000 copies have been distributed within a year of its publication.

Attention may be called here to the excellent financial condition of the Society, as shown in the Treasurer's report submitted at the Chicago meeting. During the year the funds at hand showed an increase of \$2,234.92 or 47 percent. This makes it possible for the Society to facilitate the work of its committees charged with the preparation of *Yearbooks* and should insure the appearance in the future of publications of even greater significance to education. By vote of the Executive Committee, the salary of the Secretary-Treasurer was increased to compensate for the increased demands upon his time and energy.

GUY M. WHIPPLE,
Secretary-Treasurer.

FINANCIAL REPORT OF THE SECRETARY-TREASURER OF THE
NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION

JANUARY 1, 1922, TO DECEMBER 31, 1922, INC.
RECEIPTS FOR 1922

Balance on hand, January 1, 1922.....	\$ 6,937.58
From sale of <i>Yearbooks</i> by the Public School Publishing Company:	
June to December, 1921.....	\$3,867.45
January to June, 1922.....	3,805.86
	<u>\$7,673.31</u>
Interest on savings account, bonds, etc.:	
Interest on savings to January 1, 1923....	\$ 16.58
Interest on registered Liberty bond.....	42.50
Interest and profit on other Liberty bonds.	101.01
Interest on royalties	57.70
Interest on Dominion of Canada bond.....	55.00
Interest on Continental Gas & Electric bond	30.00
	<u>\$ 302.79</u>
Securities received:	
Continental Gas and Electric bond (Cost Value)	\$ 930.00
U. S. 4½% Treasury bond (Cost Value)..	<u>1,000.00</u>
	<u>\$1,930.00</u>
Interest receivable on securities.....	\$ 14.97
Dues from Active and Associate Members.....	\$2,114.43
Total income for the year.....	<u>\$12,035.50</u>
Total receipts, including initial balance.....	\$18,973.09

EXPENDITURES FOR 1922

Publishing and Distributing Yearbooks:

Reprinting 500 14th <i>Yearbook</i> , Part I.....	\$ 144.96
Reprinting 500 14th <i>Yearbook</i> , Part II.....	86.25
Reprinting 500 15th <i>Yearbook</i> , Part I.....	271.80
Reprinting 1500 17th <i>Yearbook</i> , Part II.....	267.30
Reprinting 2000 18th <i>Yearbook</i> , Part II.....	338.10
Mats for 20th <i>Yearbook</i> , Part I.....	125.00
Plates for 20th <i>Yearbook</i> , Part II.....	210.45
Printing 4,000 21st <i>Yearbook</i>	1,965.02
Plates for 21st <i>Yearbook</i>	331.20
Reprinting 4,000 21st <i>Yearbook</i>	987.52
Mailing 21st <i>Yearbook</i>	238.37
Premium on fire insurance (\$5000).....	13.75
Expenses Committee on <i>Yearbook</i> for 1924.....	<u>323.03</u>

Total cost of *Yearbooks*..... \$5,293.75

Secretary's Office:

Secretary's Salary, one year, to end of Chicago meeting	\$ 750.00
Secretary's expenses, attending Chicago meeting.....	108.12
Secretary's expenses, attending Toronto meeting of A. A. A. S.	33.34
Bookkeeping and clerical assistance.....	71.14
Stamps	57.00
Stationery	55.57
Telegrams	13.98
Rent safety deposit box.....	2.00
Checks returned and collections.....	5.20
 Total for Secretary's Office.....	 \$1,096.55

Investments:

Continental Gas and Electric bond (face value \$1000, plus accrued interest \$14.17).....	\$ 944.17
U. S. A. 4 1/4% Treasury bond, plus accrued interest (\$0.90)	1,000.90
 Total investment during 1922.....	 \$ 1,945.07
 Total expenditures for 1922.....	 \$ 8,335.37

SUMMARY

Total expenditures for 1922.....	\$ 8,335.37
Balance on hand, December 31, 1922:	
Savings account	\$ 575.61
Checking account	3,749.20
U. S. A. Treasury Certificates.....	800.00
Liberty Bonds (Cost Value).....	1,816.97
Dominion of Canada Bond (Cost Value).....	979.75
Continental Gas and Electric Bond (Cost Value)....	930.00
Liberty Bond Interest Account.....	786.18
U. S. A. 4 1/4% Treasury Bond.....	1,000.00
 Total	 \$18,973.08

MEMBERSHIP, JANUARY 15, 1923

(Paid in advance for 1923)

Honorary members	3
Active members	512
Associate members	742

GUY M. WHIPPLE, *Secretary-Treasurer.*

HONORARY AND ACTIVE MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION

HONORARY MEMBERS

DeGarmo, Dr. Charles, Cocoanut Grove, Fla.
Dewey, John, Columbia Univ., New York City, N. Y.
Hanus, Paul H., Harvard Univ., Cambridge, Mass.

ACTIVE MEMBERS

Adams, Ray H., Supt. of Schools, Dearborn, Mich.
Alderman, Grover H., Prof. of Education, Indiana Univ., Bloomington, Ind.
Alexander, Carter, 525 W. 120th St., New York City, N. Y.
Alger, John L., Normal School, Providence, R. I.
Alleman, S. A., Supt. of Schools, Napoleonville, La.
Allen, Fiske, State Normal School, Charleston, Ill.
Allison, Samuel B., Dist. Supt. in charge of Special Schools, Board of Education, Chicago, Illinois.
Angell, Gertrude L., Buffalo Seminary, Bidwell Parkway, Buffalo, N. Y.
Anthony, Katherine M., State Normal School, Harrisonburg, Va.
Ashbaugh, Ernest J., Asst. Dir. Bureau of Edu. Research, Ohio State Univ., Columbus, Ohio.
Ashley, Myron L., 7113 Normal Blvd., Chicago, Ill.
Atwood, Abbie A., Prin. Douglas School, Janesville, Wis.
Avery, George T., 845 Bryant St., Palo Alto, Calif.
Ayer, Fred C., Dir., Dept. of Research, University of Washington, Seattle, Wash.
Bacon, Miss G. M., Buffalo Normal School, Buffalo, N. Y.
Badanes, Saul, Public School No. 173, Pennsylvania Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y.
Bader, Edith M., Ann Arbor, Mich.
Bagley, William C., R. F. D. No. 2, Westport, Conn. Teachers College, Columbia University.
Baker, H. J., 231 John R St., Detroit, Mich.
Baker, Leon, Prin. Longfellow School, Tulsa, Okla.
Baldwin, Prof. Bird T., State Univ. of Iowa, Iowa City, Ia.
Ballou, Frank W., Supt. of Public Schools, Washington, D. C.
Bamberger, Florence E., Johns Hopkins Univ., Baltimore, Md.
Banes, L. A., Prin. Sequoyah School, Tulsa, Okla.
Barber, Fred H., 6023 Woodlawn Ave., Chicago, Illinois.
Bardy, Joseph, 2114 N. Natrona St., Philadelphia, Pa.
Barnes, Harold, Girard College, Philadelphia, Pa.
Barnes, Percival S., Supt. of Schools, East Hartford, Conn.
Baumgardner, Nina E., Primary Supervisor, Eastern S. Dak. State Normal, Madison, S. Dak.
Bayles, E. E., Supervisor of Sciences, Training School, Central Mo. State Teachers College, Warrensburg, Mo.
Beaudry, Wilfred A., Prin. George E. Stacy School, Milford, Mass.

- Bell, J. Carleton, 1032-A Sterling Place, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Bender, John F., Box 625, Pittsburg, Kan.
Bennet, H. E., College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Va.
Bennett, Mrs. V. B., Prin. Moorhead School, Pittsburgh, Pa.
Benton, G. W., 100 Washington Square, New York City, N. Y.
Berry, Dr. Charles Scott, 608 Oswego Ave., Ann Arbor, Mich.
Berry, Frances M., Kindergarten-Primary Supervisor, Dept. of Edu., Baltimore, Md.
Beveridge, J. H., 508 City Hall, Omaha, Neb.
Bick, Anna, 2842A Victor St., Long School, St. Louis, Mo.
Bickford, C. W., Lewiston, Maine.
Bird, Dr. Grace E., Prof. of Educational Psychology, R. I. State College and R. I. College of Education, Providence, R. I.
Birdsong, Nellie W., 433 Kenneth Square, Baltimore, Md.
Bolelius, Emma Miller, 46 S. Queen St., Lancaster, Pa.
Bolton, Frederick E., Univ. of Wash., Seattle, Wash.
Bowlus, Edgar S., Supt. Brookhaven Schools, Brookhaven, Miss.
Bowyer, Vernon L., Lindblom High School, Chicago, Ill.
Boyden, Wallace C., Boston Normal School, Boston, Mass.
Boyer, Chas., Supt. of Schools, Atlantic City, N. J.
Boyer, Philip A., 6320 Lawnton Ave., Philadelphia, Pa.
Bradford, Mrs. Mary D., 2603 Franklin St., Wilmington, Del.
Brady, Mary J., 3017 Lafayette Ave., St. Louis, Mo.
Bragg, Mabel C., Asst. Supt. School Dept., Newtonville, Mass.
Breckenbridge, Miss Elizabeth, Louisville Normal School, Louisville, Ky.
Breed, Frederick S., 5476 University Ave., Chicago, Ill.
Brewer, Anne T., The Hathaway-Brown School, 1945 E. Ninety-Seventh St., Cleveland, Ohio.
Briggs, Thos. H., Teachers College, Columbia Univ., New York City, N. Y.
Bristow, W. H., Director of Boys Work, Whittier House, Social Settlement, 174 Grand St., Jersey City, N. J.
Brogue, Arthur, 5428 Kimbark Ave., Chicago, Ill.
Brooks, Fowler D., Johns Hopkins Univ., Baltimore, Md.
Brooks, John D., Coördinator for U. S. Veteran Bureau, Univ. of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.
Brown, Gilbert L., Marquette, Mich.
Brown, J. C., President, State Normal School, St. Cloud, Minn.
Brown, J. H., Prin. Irving School, Tulsa, Okla.
Brown, J. Stanley, President, State Normal School, DeKalb, Ill.
Brown, Stella E., c/o Board of Education, County & City Supervisor, Frederick, Md.
Brueckner, L. J., Ass't Dean, Detroit Teachers College, Detroit, Mich.
Buchanan, Wm. D., 5749 Maple Ave., Dozier School, St. Louis, Mo.
Buchner, Edward F., Johns Hopkins Univ., Baltimore, Md.
Buckingham, Dr. B. R., Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.
Buckner, Chester A., Univ. of Pittsburgh, School of Edu., Pittsburgh, Pa.
Buffum, Hugh S., Iowa State Teachers' College, Cedar Falls, Iowa.
Burkard, William E., 3202 W. Dauphin St., Philadelphia, Pa.
Burnham, Ernest, State Normal School, Kalamazoo, Mich.
Buswell, G. T., Univ. of Chicago, School of Education, Chicago, Ill.
Butler, L. A., 1128 Olivia Ave., Ann Arbor, Mich.
Butterworth, Julian E., Cornell Univ., Ithaca, N. Y.
Byrd, C. E., Supt. of Schools, Shreveport, La.
Byrne, Lee, 30 S. Governor St., Iowa City, Ia.

- Cammack, I. I., Supt. of Schools, Kansas City, Mo.
Camp, Frederick S., Supt. of Schools, 52 Hoyt St., Stamford, Conn.
Carmichael, Perry, Prin. Horace Mann School, Tulsa, Okla.
Cavan, Jordan, Associate Prof. of Edu., Dept. of Education, Rockford College, Rockford, Ill.
Chace, S. Howard, 19 Thorndike St., Beverly, Mass.
Chadsey, Charles E., Univ. of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.
Chadwick, R. D., Morgan Park School, Duluth, Minn.
Chambers, Will G., State College, Pa.
Chandler, J. A. C., President, William and Mary College, Williamsburg, Va.
Chapman, Ira T., Supt. of Schools, New Brunswick, N. J.
Chapman, J. Crosby, Associate Prof. Educational Psychology, Yale Univ., New Haven, Conn.
Charters, W. W., Carnegie Inst. of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pa.
Chew, Samuel L., Supt. District No. 9, 6th & Erie Ave., Philadelphia, Pa.
Childs, Hubert G., Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.
Chipkin, Israel S., 114 Fifth Ave., Jewish Education Asso., New York City, N. Y.
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Information Concerning the National Society for the Study of Education

1. PURPOSE. The purpose of the National Society is to promote the investigation and discussion of educational questions. To this end it holds an annual meeting and publishes a series of Yearbooks.

2. ELIGIBILITY TO MEMBERSHIP. Any person who is interested in receiving its publications may become a member upon application to the Secretary and subsequent approval by the Executive Committee. Membership may not be had by libraries or by institutions.

3. PERIOD OF MEMBERSHIP. Applicants for membership may not date their entrance back of the current calendar year, and all memberships terminate automatically on December 31st, unless the dues for the ensuing year are paid as indicated in Item 6.

4. CLASSES OF MEMBERS. Application may be made for either active or associate membership. Active members pay two dollars dues annually, receive two copies of each publication, are entitled to vote, to hold office and to participate in discussion. Associate members pay one dollar dues annually, receive one copy of each publication, may attend the meetings of the Society, but may not vote, hold office or participate in discussion. The names of active members only are printed in Part I of each Yearbook. There were in 1922 about 500 active and 900 associate members.

5. ELECTION FEE. New active and new associate members are required the first year to pay, in addition to the dues, an election fee of one dollar.

6. PAYMENT OF DUES. Statements of dues are rendered in October for the following calendar year. By vote of the Society at the 1919 meeting, "any member so notified whose dues remain unpaid on January 1st, thereby loses his membership and can be reinstated only by paying the election fee of one dollar required of new members." School warrants and vouchers from institutions must be accompanied by definite information concerning the name and address and class of membership of the person for whom membership fee is being paid.

7. DISTRIBUTION OF YEARBOOKS TO MEMBERS. The Yearbooks, ready each February, will be mailed from the office of the publishers and only to members whose dues for that year have been paid. Members who desire Yearbooks prior to the current year must purchase them directly from the publishers (see Item 8).

8. COMMERCIAL SALES. The distribution of all Yearbooks prior to the current year and also of those of the current year not regularly mailed to members in exchange for their dues is in the hands of the publishers, not of the secretary. For such commercial sales, communicate directly with the Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois, who will gladly send a price list covering all the publications of this Society and of its predecessor, the National Herbart Society.

9. YEARBOOKS. The Yearbooks are issued in parts (usually two) every February. They comprise from 250 to 500 pages annually. Unusual effort has been made to make them on the one hand of immediate practical value and on the other hand representative of sound scholarship and scientific investigation. Many of them are the fruit of cooperative work by committees of the Society.

10. MEETINGS. The annual meeting, at which the Yearbooks are discussed, is held in February at the same time and place as the meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association.

Applications for membership will be handled promptly at any time on receipt of name and address, together with check for the appropriate amount (\$3.00 for new active membership, \$2.00 for new associate membership).

GUY M. WHIPPLE, Secretary-Treasurer.

